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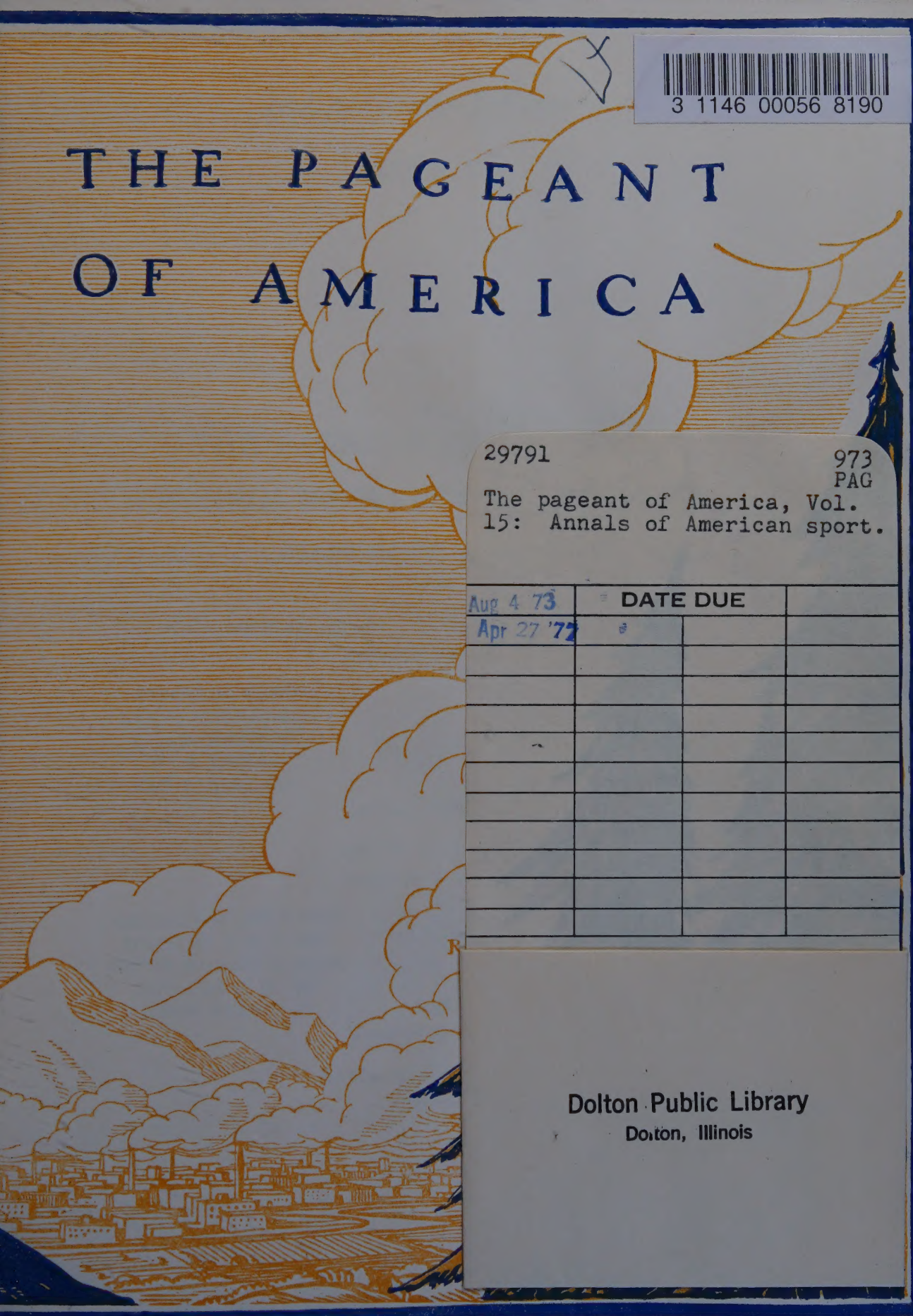

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THE PAGEANT OF AMERICA

A PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

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From the painting by John Ward Dunsmore (1856–) in his possession

"THE FIRST GENTLEMAN OF VIRGINIA"

THE YALE PAGEANT OF AMERICA

ANNALS OF AMERICAN SPORT

BY

JOHN ALLEN KROUT

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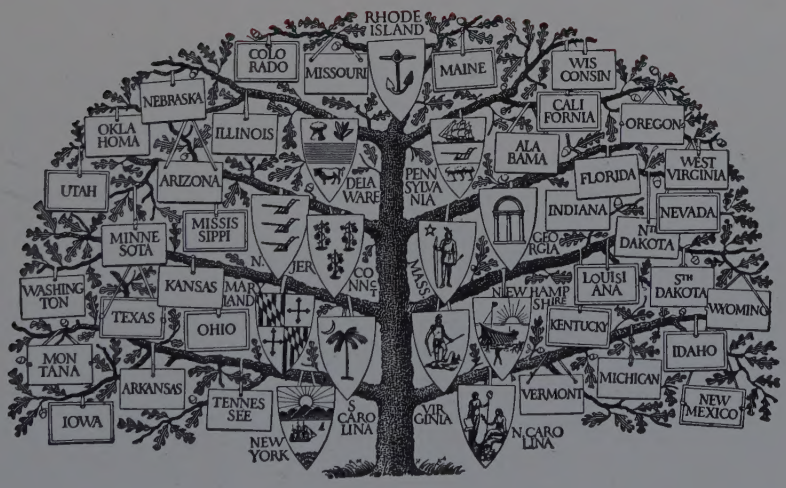

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To

WALTER CAMP

Whose faith and vision find fulfilment
in these annals of American sport

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SPORT IN AMERICAN LIFE

IN the year 464 B.C., Xenophon of Corinth was one of that band of Greek youths who gathered at the stadium to take part in the Olympic games. A month before, he, with the other contestants, had solemnly sworn that he was of pure Hellenic blood, that he was free, that for the ten preceding months he had trained for the great contest, and that he had never been guilty of sacrilege or been publicly disgraced. On the eve of the games he stood with his colleagues reverently before the altar and the statue of Zeus while sacrifice was made to the Lord of Olympus. He prayed for that victory which would bring honor to his family, his city, and his country. Then with a procession and a blare of trumpets the Olympiad began. Xenophon of Corinth won the two-hundred-yards dash and the pentathlon on the same day. Pindar whose immortal odes celebrated the triumphs of so many Olympian victors turned to his muse to honor Xenophon, crowned with an olive wreath from the sacred grove at Altis.

"Lord supreme of Olympia! that reignest far and wide, O Father Zeus! never, for all time, be thou jealous of our language, but, ruling this people in all security, grant a straight course to the fair breeze of Xenophon's good fortune, and accept from him the duly ordered triumph-band in honour of his crowns, the band that he brings from the plains of Pisa, being victor in the five events, as well as in the footrace. He hath thus attained what no mortal man ever yet attained before . . . and do thou, O Zeus, the giver of perfection, grant reverence and the sweet good-fortune of a happy lot."

In course of time the glory of Greece was dimmed and the athletic ideals and sports of Hellas were forgotten. The Greek chariot race was continued in the stadia of the Roman Empire, but the foot races and the field events of the Olympic games languished. In their place gladiatorial combats spattered the walls of the Colosseum with blood. Blood and fierce combat also marked those stirring spectacles of the Middle Ages, the tournaments of armored knights. Then a new civilization emerged in western Europe with roots running back to Rome and Athens. The nineteenth century saw the revival of athletic sports. The Olympic games came again into being and athletes from all over the civilized world, like the youth of ancient Greece, competed for the coveted prizes. Two thousand three hundred and ninety-two years after the triumph of Xenophon of Corinth eight stalwart oarsmen from California received from the Queen of Holland the trophy for their victory in the eight-oared shell at the seventh Olympiad. The national team of which the Californians were members had acquitted itself with honor. Yet, seventy-five years before the Olympiad of 1928 athletics were almost unknown among the American people. Nor is the origin of the era of sports in the United States to be found in the life of provincial America.

The seventeenth century was a grim age for English colonists set down on the edge of the inhospitable continent of North America. Separated from civilization by a stormy ocean and striving desperately to keep body and soul together, these folk of the frontier had little time to disport themselves. For many of them, moreover, an ascetic puritanism taught that pleasure was an offense in the sight of the Lord. Whenever men began to accumulate a surplus, however, the stern battle of life relaxed. Then provincials turned to whatever pleasures their circumstances and their religious beliefs would permit in a raw and primitive country. Training days, when young men prepared themselves for the business of war, became community holidays. Bees of various kinds transformed into frolics the building of houses, the husking of corn, or the preparing of fruit for drying. "I have never been so happy in my life," wrote Crèvecœur in the eighteenth century, "as when I have assisted at these simple merriments, and indeed they are the only ones I know. Each returns home and is satisfied, and our work is done." In colonial America, if work was sometimes turned into sport, sport also became work. In the Old World hunting had been the pastime of the aristocracy. In the New the pioneer became a hunter perforce in order to eke out his food supply. Yet hunting did not lose its zest. The wilderness where deer grazed and bison crashed through the underbrush, where wild fowls covered the marshlands, and great cats crept stealthily from branch to branch lured men like Boone to yield their very lives to it. The hunter-pioneer might, perhaps, even be thought of as America's first professional sportsman.

Eighteenth-century America, far removed, except on the frontier, from the primitive struggle for existence, began consciously to imitate the sporting customs of the people across the Atlantic, particularly those of England. Play habits and attitudes were part of the cultural heritage which Europe bequeathed to provincial America. Before active and laborious years had rounded out the seventeenth century, the shouts of spectators, following the course of racing horses, had broken the stillness of more than one American plain. The appeal of the animals themselves, the skill required of their trainers and drivers, and the opportunity to toy with chance have from antiquity contributed to endear the race track to the human heart. As soon as there were men, horses, and a modicum of leisure in America, the race was inevitable. Inevitable also in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was the migration of blood sports across the Atlantic.

An age which tortured heretics and criminals and in which executions were public spectacles quite naturally derived pleasure as did the Romans from mortal and bloody combat. Setting dogs to bait and kill chained bears, pursuing with hounds the lone fox until he forfeited his life to the snarling pack, and pitting against one another gamecocks whose spurs were shod with steel were the principal blood sports of the English. The folk of the British Isles did not develop the struggle of man against animal into spectacles like the Latin bull fight. Bear baiting was out of vogue in England by the time that American provincials had sufficient leisure to take up sports. The excitement which the pastime offered was replaced in the New World by that of the hunt for bears, wolves, wild cats, and other predatory animals which menaced the fields and folds of the colonial husband-

man. The fox hunts of the English gentry inevitably appeared in the plantation communities of the southern colonies. In his day, Washington was an enthusiastic follower of the hounds. Unlike its fate in England, where its popularity continued, the sport waned in nineteenth-century America. Its disappearance was due in part to the decline of the tradition of aristocracy in the face of an insistent democracy and in part to the fact that cross-country fox-hunting was not adapted to American conditions where the small holdings of independent farmers lay between the plantations of the aristocrats. The fate of cockfighting was somewhat different. In the early eighteenth century, when this was the sport *par excellence* of the English people and when Admiral Boscawen, "Old Dreadnought," never took his fleet from port without a supply of birds as adequate as that of ammunition, the cockpit inevitably appeared in America. Fierce combat, flowing blood, death, and the chance to gamble drew the folk of the New World as of the Old to watch the frenzy of stupid birds. The humanitarianism of the nineteenth century brought the sport into disrepute although the cockpit in communities slow to feel the stirrings of a new age persisted into the twentieth century.

Hunting, fishing, and horse racing in both North and South, together with cockfighting in the latter section, were the chief sports of the American people during the first half of the nineteenth century. Americans were an out-of-door folk, the great majority getting their living from the soil. A numerous and hardy minority adventured upon the sea in fishing smacks, whaling ships, or merchantmen. Few were the citizens of the Republic whose fortunes were not affected by the fickle weather. The soil, plants and animals, wind and wave were of the very substance of American life. The United States was still in the agricultural and commercial phase of its developing civilization. The frontiersman on the edge of the wilderness, the farmer on his quiet eastern acres, the sea captain watching the bellying sails of his clipper were all individualists who faced and struggled with nature virtually single handed. The whaler pursuing his giant and dangerous prey over the ocean wastes from the tropics to the polar sea was, in a sense, the greatest of them all. He was a sportsman, a professional to be sure, but a sportsman none the less. Yet in no essential characteristic did he differ from the mass of his fellow citizens. In the restless, swiftly-changing America of the first half of the nineteenth century life itself was the great game. There was little time for play; the word "vacation" had not found its way into the speech of the people. The few sports of the time were those emphasizing individual skill. Americans were not yet willing to submit to the discipline of team play.

As the agricultural and commercial epoch of American development drew to its close in the middle years of the nineteenth century, it took on, in the civilization of the Old South and in the intellectual flowering of the North, an autumnal splendor. Just as Americans were passing out of that period, two centuries and more in length, in which they had lived and worked in the out-of-doors, close to the heart of nature, a few sensitive and thoughtful souls among them began to look with new eyes upon this same nature. The workaday American had tended to take for granted the forest, the hills, the soil, and the broad oceans. For the most part he had spent his active life matching his strength and

wits against natural forces. That great transcendentalist, Ralph Waldo Emerson, taught the young men of the eighteen-forties and -fifties that man is a part of nature and that nature is the body of God. In 1851 John James Audubon, just past three score and ten, died leaving his *Birds of America* as his imperishable monument. He too was an American pioneer pointing out to his fellow countrymen the rich rewards that nature offers him who will divest himself of preconceived prejudice or sentiment and seek merely to know and understand the wild life about him and the world in which he dwells. Emerson, Thoreau at Walden Pond, and Audubon were the spiritual ancestors of those Americans who took the lead in guarding and preserving those surpassing bits of splendor and beauty, the national parks of the twentieth century.

Audubon had been in his grave but two years when Chicago was for the first time connected with the Atlantic seaboard by an all-rail route. The shrill whistles of the little locomotives which rattled along the iron tracks heralded the advent of industrial America. After Appomattox a swiftly-expanding network of railways transformed the United States from an agglomeration of semi-independent sections into an economic unit. Highways and airways in the twentieth century carried forward the solution of the American transportation problem. Adequate communication permitted the large-scale exploitation of the unparalleled mineral wealth which lies within the boundaries of the nation. Forests of chimneys arose above cities sprawling beyond their former bounds. City streets became canyons and men, like jungle trees, struggled upward for light. Americans went indoors to serve machines, stand behind counters, or sit at desks. Except for the farmers and fishermen who persisted into the new era, contact with nature largely ceased and men adjusted their lives to an artificial environment. The reaction of an out-of-door people herded in a single generation into overgrown cities was the rise of sport and the appearance of an out-of-door movement. Athletic development was as swift as that of industry.

In 1851, the year of Audubon's death, the first race for the *America's* cup was sailed. "The opening of the American Jockey Club at Jerome Park . . . in 1866, was an epoch for the American turf." In 1864 and 1865 German Americans organized their national Turnerbund for the practice of athletic exercises and in 1868 the New York Athletic Club came into being. Eight years later the National League of baseball clubs assumed the leadership of that indigenous sport. In 1877 the opening of the Brooklyn rink started in the United States the European craze for roller skating. The "first national convention" of croquet players was held in Chicago in 1879. In 1880 a convention at Springfield, Massachusetts, under the leadership of Walter Camp laid the foundations of American football. In the same twelve-month the League of American Wheelmen was organized and in 1887 the "safety" bicycle with pneumatic tires began to replace the high-wheeled species. The year 1881 witnessed the appearance of the American Lawn Tennis Association. In 1882 John L. Sullivan, prize fighter, won the title of champion of America. The first country clubs appeared at New York and Boston in 1886 and 1887. The latter year saw the founding of the Boone and Crockett Club. The golf course in the Shinnecock

Hills on Long Island was opened for play in 1892. In 1900 New York held its first American automobile show. Ten years later the Boy Scouts of America came into being. The National Park Service was created in 1917, the culmination of a policy begun in 1872 of protecting regions of unusual scenic beauty from private exploitation. In February 1917, the American people attended their first aeroplane show, significant, perhaps, of the sport of the future. In 1927 the Year Book of the Playground and Recreation Association of America showed eight hundred and fifteen cities reporting public playgrounds supervised by nineteen thousand eight hundred and twenty-five paid leaders who were aided by more than seven thousand volunteer assistants. Meager as it is, this outline may help to suggest the magnitude of the social revolution which the rise of sports and the out-of-door movement has brought to America since the middle of the nineteenth century.

During the years which passed from the close of the Civil War to the end of the century were laid in America the foundations of the new era of sport. Earlier in the century a similar dawn had come to the people of Germany, humbled and depressed by the Napoleonic wars. A prophet of patriotism, Frederick Jahn, appeared who sought to lead his people to elevation of spirit through mastery over the skilled and healthy body. Soon after 1870, when France lay helpless under the Teuton heel, a leader arose in the land of the tricolor. Baron Pierre de Coubertin strove also to revive the spirits of his despairing countrymen. Unlike Jahn, he invented no semi-military system of exercises and evolutions. He visioned a future day when sportsmen of all kinds and from all nations would meet in friendly competition and, perforce, exchange methods and technique. "On the day that this Free Trade is accepted in Europe, a great step forward will have been made in the sacred cause of peace." In 1896 at Athens Coubertin saw the fulfillment of his dream in the first of the modern Olympiads. To this epoch-making meet under the skies of ancient Hellas, Hungary and the United States were the only nations to send well-rounded teams. The representatives of the latter carried home trophies of more victories than those of any other country. Unlike the experience of France and Germany, American interest in athletic things did not spring from military defeat. No single prophet led the people of the western world toward a new day. America followed England where in the early nineteenth century without artificial stimulus sports had come to play an important rôle in national life. British sport, however, was primarily a phase of the life of the upper classes; in America the appearance of baseball at the very beginning of the athletic era signified a mass movement affecting all groups in the population. The swift development of sport in the United States and the perennial success of Americans in competition with the athletes of the world is evidence that the new movement was in harmony with fundamental folkways of the people.

American life in the first half of the nineteenth century was cast in the mold of individualism and democracy. Industrialism after the Civil War by creating vast inequalities in the distribution of wealth impaired democracy. Social stratification became increasingly marked. The political influence of the new industrial giants bore no relation to their voting powers. Yet Americans clung tenaciously to the democratic ideal. On the new

athletic fields of the nation birth and wealth availed but little; the prize went to the fleetest and the most proficient. If the period from 1865 to the end of the century was a time of origins, the first quarter of the twentieth century was the day of the champion and the athletic spectacle. Actual players were still in a minority and the great mass of those interested in sport were content to buy seats in stadium or bleachers. But they hailed the victor, no matter what his origin, with shout and headline. Sport unquestionably aids the American people to conserve the ideal and carry on the practice of democracy. If industrialism warped democracy, it confined individualism within vast and intricate organizations. It harnessed men and women to automatic machines. On the playground and the athletic field the individualism of frontier America lives again as the narrow specialist of the industrial world finds new opportunities to develop his powers and express his personality. The evidence suggests that only a beginning has been made. In America sport has helped to carry into a new civilization some of the best elements of a vanished age. It has also brought new forces into the national life.

The citizens of the young republic were wont to play the game of life vigorously but they were a people boastful of their triumphs and, like the Federalists of New England, inclined to sulk in defeat. With sport came that complex of customs and ideals called sportsmanship. Americans began to school themselves in the difficult art, not yet mastered, of winning and losing both fairly and gracefully. Struggle with the natural environment on frontier, farm, and sea disciplined the folk of the first half of the nineteenth century; the fiber of later generations has been hardened by conformity to the code graven on the tablets of sport. In 1894 Coubertin addressed the ruling sportsmen of the different nations. "Before all things it is necessary that we should preserve in sport those characteristics of nobility and chivalry which have distinguished it in the past, so that it may continue to play the same part in the education of the peoples of today as it played so admirably in the days of ancient Greece. Imperfect humanity has ever tended to transform the Olympic athlete into the paid gladiator. But the two things are incompatible. We must choose between one formula and the other." In America idealists of the new day, like Dean Briggs and Walter Camp, have sought to hold athletics true to the code of honor. So long as human nature remains fallible the struggle for clean contests and fair play will not end; but victories have been won greater than the feats of champions. Not the least of the contributions of sport to modern life is this new battle ground for the age-old struggle of good and evil.

Before his death Walter Camp came to personify that other outstanding contribution of sport to American life, the return to the Greek ideal of physical fitness and perfection. The average American of the early nineteenth century paid scant heed either to the cleanliness or the proper functioning of the tabernacle within which he dwelt. The development of the science of preventive medicine has wrought a revolution in this phase of the national life. But sport has played a part almost as significant. Particularly has sport shattered those Victorian conventions which restrained women from physical exercise and compelled them to deform their bodies with injurious apparel. Sport began the task of giving free-

dom, fitness, and new ideals to the mothers of the race. Under medical guidance athletes seem destined to play a leading rôle in the task of establishing the civilization of twentieth-century America on the sound foundation of a healthy citizenry.

No force affecting life so profoundly as sport could fail to produce baleful as well as beneficent results. The organization which is the foundation of industry has its athletic counterpart. Thousands of Americans — coaches, trainers, directors, reporters, manufacturers, professional sportsmen, and dispensers of sporting goods, make their livings from the sport business. They are inevitable, useful, and sometimes of vast influence for good, but they represent the vested interests of the new era. The organization and equipment of modern athletics are costly. The commercialism of amateur contests has resulted. The organization has, moreover, emphasized the champion and the breaker of records. The devotees of the cult of sport have been wont to make vast sacrifices for their brief moment in the spot light. Americans with characteristic energy carried in the first quarter of the twentieth century the victory-motive to its ultimate extreme. Evidence suggesting reaction has already appeared. Perhaps the years which lie ahead will see the revival of that other Greek ideal, the golden mean — the golden mean between playing to win and for the zest of the game. Without this ideal sport can never perform its true function in American life.

Sport, after all, is a form of play although it may be transformed into grinding labor. And the value of play in a tense and hurried age is each year being more fully understood. The occasional escape from the pressure of business or the inexorable round of the machine makes both for efficiency and for length of days. Ball play dulls for a moment the edge of discontent and golf subtly teaches that there are other values than those to be found in dollars. Play is no longer thought of as the peculiar perquisite of children save in the sense that men and women strive to remain children throughout their span of years. Yet perhaps for childhood sport has its greatest significance. The organized playground movement, as yet only in its beginnings, seeks to take the youth of urban America off pavements where lurk dangers both physical and moral. Through sports and play both within and out-of-doors it attempts to develop those qualities which make for healthy and well-rounded adult life. The playground and the athletic field have become parts of the process of American education from kindergarten to university. In fact the first quarter of the twentieth century too often found athletics over-emphasized in institutions of learning. The striking of a just balance between the things of the body and those of the mind remains a problem of the future.

Side by side with the rise of sport has gone the out-of-door movement as personified by the hiker, the camper, and the amateur naturalist. The railroad and the bicycle before the end of the nineteenth century were taking jaded city dwellers to forest and stream. The automobile in the twentieth century put the nation on wheels and wrought a transformation in life unparalleled in the history of the American people. The possibilities of the airplane can be but dimly perceived. The out-of-door movement has offered a relaxation akin to that of sport. It has produced both state and national parks and the wide-

spread effort to conserve wild life. It has put the vacation into American folkways and made clear to a busy people the importance of playgrounds for adults as well as children. So new is the change that most Americans have not yet learned to utilize fully the opportunities which have opened before them. For the majority, perhaps, the lure of the out-of-doors is as yet satisfied by a drive in a motor car along a traffic-filled highway. For many the unpaved road of the quiet countryside beckons to daisy-covered fields and placid picnic groves. But a few there are — and their number grows — who long for the periodic return to the wilds as "the hart panteth after the water brooks." Perhaps the greatest of these was Burroughs who dedicated his life to teaching his fellow men what riches nature offers him who will but seek them. "The peace of the hills is about me and upon me," he wrote as age crept on, "and the leisure of the summer clouds, whose shadows I see slowly drifting across the face of the landscape, is mine. The dissonance and the turbulence and the stench of the cities — how far off they seem! the noise and the dust and the acrimony of politics — how completely the hum of the honey-bees and the twitter of swallows blot them all out!"

Ralph H. Gabriel

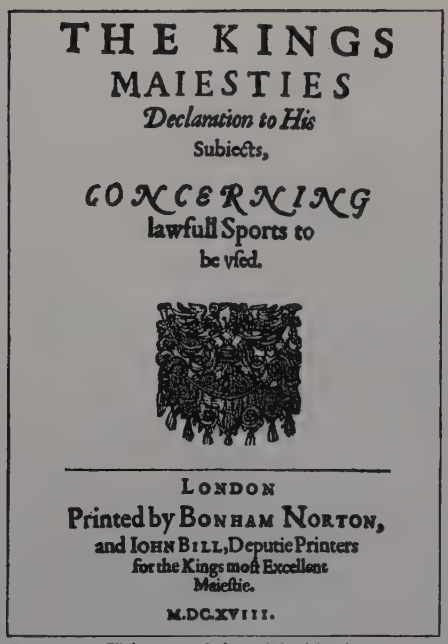
CHAPTER I

PIONEERS AT PLAY

THE venturesome pioneers who left Europe in the seventeenth century to establish hearthstones and farmsteads along the Atlantic coast of North America were not representatives of the leisure class. As peasants on manorial estates or craftsmen and sea-going folk in the commercial towns, many of them had been schooled in a life of toil which was excellent preparation for the stern task of conquering a wilderness of forest, dune and swamp. Contact with a primitive environment served to impress on these frontiersmen the righteousness as well as the necessity of labor. Engrossed in their efforts to establish a new society speedily and securely, they attached profound significance to the exhortations against idleness, recorded in the Proverbs of Solomon. The wasting of valuable time in purposeless diversion was, in view of the tasks ahead of them, particularly sinful. Play had to be justified in most instances by a real or fancied relation to some sterner duty. Only when the first fierce struggle against the wilderness was won, did a few in the older communities find wealth and leisure which enabled them to introduce to the New World such sports and pastimes as intrigued the nobility and gentry of Europe.

Later generations, looking back upon the thin line of settlements which stretched from the Penobscot River in Maine to the Altamaha in Georgia, have been prone to stress the apparent lack of play in colonial life. With Nathaniel Hawthorne they have lamented the social shortcomings of an age in which youth regarded the public punishment of felons and criminals as a pleasing treat. They have merrily repeated Macaulay's famous quip that bear-baiting was banned not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it afforded pleasure to the spectator. From the writings of Puritan clergy and Virginia magistrates they have shown that frivolous pastimes were neither common nor highly esteemed along the American frontier.

In following these commentators the present-day American may easily misunderstand the situation two centuries ago. To a remarkable degree the colonial pioneer succeeded in associating pleasurable recreation with necessary industry. Hunting, for example, was an important means of securing a livelihood, but it also afforded opportunity for coöperative sport. The thrill of luring the wary trout or playing the gamy salmon was not entirely dissipated by the fact that the fisherman thereby earned a portion of his subsistence. Mingled with irksome responsibility and constant danger there were the delights of sailing for the seaman. From his vocation he derived some of the joys which the modern yachtsman finds in a diverting avocation. In similar fashion the routine tasks of the countryside yielded their measure of fun. On each successive frontier barn raisings, log rollings, plowing bees and corn huskings were ventures which developed into sporting tests of strength and skill so dear to the heart of the pioneer. In them were nurtured those elements of competition and coöperation essential in the development of modern organized sport.


THE KINGS
MAIESTIES
Declaration to His
Subiects,
CONCERNING
lawfull Sports to
be vſed.

LONDON
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and IOHN BILL, Deputie Printers
for the Kings moſt Excellent
Maieſtie.
M.DC.XVIII.

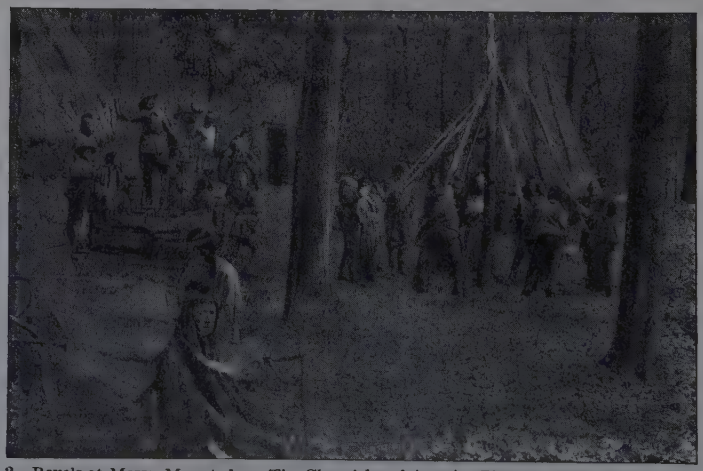
1 Title-page of the original in the Huntington Library

THE *BOOK OF SPORTS*

Two years before the Pilgrims, heartened by the example of the Jamestown colonists, sailed out of Plymouth harbor for some new Plymouth across the sea, there passed under the royal seal a proclamation of James I touching upon the lawful sports to be enjoyed by his loyal subjects. Through the precise phrasing of its pages one gets glimpses of the religious dissension then stirring England and the bearing of the dispute upon the traditional pastimes of the populace. The King had discovered in Lancashire and other parts of his kingdom "much discontent in consequence of the population being deprived of popular recreation on Sundays." For this situation he blamed Puritans and other austere folk. With the hope of winning favor for the Established Church he ordered that all who attended services on Sundays and holy days should be permitted to engage in lawful recreations after worship. In the list of approved sports appear the diversions of the English peasantry, games and exercises of the countryside, which were brought by English pioneers to their homes in the wilderness across the Atlantic. The *Book of Sports*, as King James' proclamation was known, affirmed the royal approval of dancing on the green, the festival around the may-pole (Vol. III, p. 19), leaping, vaulting, and such other harmless exercises as wrestling, pitching the bar and throwing the sledge, which had formerly received the sanction of Queen Elizabeth. Archery, encouraged since the days when the longbowman was an important element in England's defense, was not forgotten. Bull baiting and bear baiting were permissible save on Sundays and holy days. Fowling, falconry, and riding to hounds, because it was the nobility and gentry that participated in them, did not concern this mandate designed to convince the plain folk of the King's interest in their welfare.

PURITAN PREJUDICES

THE English villagers and townspeople who followed in the wake of the *Sarah Constant* and the *Mayflower* brought to the New World the sports and pastimes with which they had been familiar in the Old. In the case of the Separatist and Puritan migrations they brought also prejudices against the popular recreations of the mother country. For them the beauty of the May festival was overshadowed by the fear of inadvertently drifting into a pagan idolatry. Dancing, running, jumping and kindred sports of the village green were associated in their minds with profanation of the Sabbath. Bull baiting, bear baiting and cockfighting they frowned upon not because of the suffering of the victims, but lest the spectators should be inclined toward idleness and dissolute living. At Plymouth, when some of the settlers insisted that labor on Christmas Day was contrary to their conscientious scruples, Governor Bradford, for his own conscience' sake, forbade them to play stool-ball and pitch-the-bar in the streets. In 1627 that pleasure-loving trouble-maker, Thomas Morton, set up a may-pole at Merry Mount, where he presided over festivities which so incensed his stern neighbors that they sent Endicott to investigate, who promptly put an end to "pagan" merriment by cutting down the may-pole. Had the leaders at Plymouth, Salem and Boston been in Parliament in 1643 they would have voted with the majority that all copies of the *Book of Sports* be seized and burned.



2 Revels at Merry Mount, from The Chronicles of America Photoplay, *The Puritans*

AN EARLY THANKSGIVING

3 First Thanksgiving in New England, from an old print in the *Scrap Book of Holidays*, in the New York Public Library

THE Puritan prejudice against wasting precious time in frivolous diversions was reënforced by the conditions of seventeenth century life in America. The struggle to gain a foothold in the wilderness left little time for non-productive effort. Among the early settlers there was slight opportunity or inclination to develop organized recreation. Yet it should not be assumed that these pioneers in New England were sad-visaged people moving always with sober decorum through a dull routine of work unrelieved by play. There were other days like the first thanksgiving festival at Plymouth. "Our harvest being gotten in," wrote Edward Winslow in December, 1621, "our governor sent four men on fowling, that so we might, after a special manner, rejoice together after we had gathered the fruit of our labors. . . . At which time, amongst other recreations, we exercised our arms, many of the Indians coming amongst us, and among the rest their greatest king, Massasoit, with some ninety men, whom for three days we entertained and feasted." One can see the settlers as their dusky visitors looked on, testing marksmanship with bow and arrow as well as matchlock, comparing strength in wrestling and throwing the bar and competing with each other for supremacy in running and jumping.

TRAINING DAYS

THROUGHOUT New England, training days offered the greatest opportunity for participation in outdoor sports. As the years passed a gala spirit came to pervade these periodic musterings of the able-bodied men of the town. Though the same psalms were sung before the exercises, the sober decorum of the days of John Cotton was not so evident in the time of Cotton Mather. At the Boston training the drill was generally followed by a great feast on the Common. Those who did not tarry too long at the taverns competed in target practice for prizes ranging from a silk handkerchief to a silver cup. Proficiency in marksmanship was scarcely more coveted than superiority in wrestling and rough-and-tumble fighting. Running and jumping contests became more hilarious as the day waned, but the magistrates were apt to overlook much on training days which they would not countenance on less favored occasions.

4 *A New plan of ye great Towne of Boston*, from the map by William Price, 1743, in Mary Farrell Ayer, *Boston Common in Colonial and Provincial Days*, privately printed, 1903

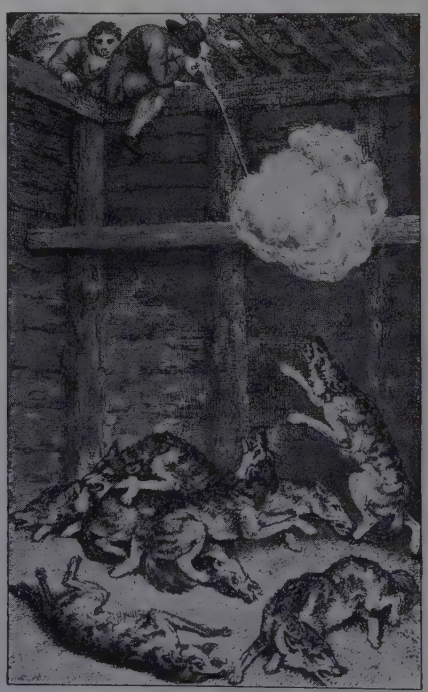
5 Rock Lake in the Adirondacks, New York, from a photograph by J. H. White, Boston

A VAST GAME PRESERVE

Conditioning the activities of the pioneers, whether they settled on the shores of Massachusetts Bay, on the banks of the Delaware or along the inland reaches of Chesapeake Bay, was the forest. Within its shadow was much that allured as well as repelled. A dangerous foe often lurked among the trees which supplied timbers for the home; the source of food and furs was also the haunt of wild beasts which proved troublesome, if not terrifying, marauders. As the early settlers mastered the intricacies of a strange woodcraft, they came to realize the limitless opportunity for the hunter in this boundless woodland. Here was a vast game preserve where no keen-eyed warden earned his living by detecting poachers. No distinction of rank or property determined who should enjoy the privilege of sport with the gun. Many a colonist seeking diversion must have thought what John Fenwick voiced in his description of West Jersey: "And how prodigal hath nature been to furnish this country with all sorts of wild beast and fowl, which every one hath an interest in and may hunt at his pleasure, where, besides the pleasure in hunting he may furnish his house with excellent fat venison, turkies, geese, heath-hens, cranes, swans, ducks, pigeons, and the like; and wearied with that, he may go a-fishing, where the rivers are so furnished that he may supply himself with fish before he can leave off the recreation."

HUNTING METHODS

On the frontier hunting was a necessity. As the pioneers pushed into new regions it continued to be the accepted means of filling the larder and replenishing in part the family wardrobe. Yet from the early days of settlement it afforded individual recreation as well as coöperative sport. With the decline of the necessity for hunting and its increased vogue as a pleasurable diversion, the community gave evidence of the passing of frontier conditions. This change was noticeable in the southern provinces, where the tobacco planter welcomed the diverse sport which the abundance of game afforded. With well-trained horses he stalked the timid deer, or behind blinds of pine boughs he waited at feeding grounds and salt licks for easy shots. His mongrel dogs treed bears, which he often failed to bring down with a single shot. Hunting bears and wildcats was generally a coöperative enterprise with the rivalry of a score of shooters adding zest to the pursuit. Those who enjoyed smaller game tracked the raccoon or the opossum at night. If there was no moon, pine-knot torches lighted the way for the hunters as they followed the dogs. When a trail was struck and the animal driven up a tree, the yelping of the hounds resounded through the forest, not to be silenced until the 'coon or 'possum had been shaken down to them. In other communities the utilitarian character of the hunt was emphasized. Colonial assemblies offered generous bounties for certain pelts in order to rid the countryside of wolves, foxes and other small "vermin." The "wolf-drive" took on the nature of a public function. Within designated limits every effort was made to exterminate the animal. His haunts were visited by hunters intent upon the business of killing rather than the sport of pursuit. So universally was the wolf hated that no method of capturing him was scorned. Tempting bait was placed near his haunts, a loaded gun being adjusted so that the trigger was pulled when the wolf began to eat. Some were ensnared in pits and log pens, whence they were taken and tied to posts to be baited by dogs. Even less sporting was the practice of driving them into pens at the top of which gunners were posted to destroy them.



6 Shooting Wolves Driven into a Pen, from a drawing *American Wolves*, by Howitt in *The Sporting Magazine*, London, May 1821

WILD CATTLE AND HORSES

7 Wild Horses, from a lithograph after a painting by M. E. D. Brown, in *The Cabinet of Natural History and American Rural Sports*, I. & T. Doughty, Philadelphia, 1830–32

In the southern colonies the settlers pastured their livestock in the unfenced woodland. Within a few decades there were small herds of half-wild cattle, bearing no owner's mark and seldom seen near the planter's habitation. At the close of the seventeenth century Virginians and Carolinians hunted these animals much as they pursued deer and elk. So prevalent had the practice become that in 1703 Carolina forbade the killing of any unmarked cattle within the province. More exciting was the pursuit of wild horses. Their fleetness made the chase attractive, while the difficulty of taming them, once caught, appealed to all lovers of horses. "There is yet another kind of sport," wrote a visitor to Virginia, "which the young people take great delight in and that is the hunting of wild horses, which they pursue sometimes with dogs and sometimes without. You must know they have many horses foaled in the woods of the uplands that never were in hand and are as shy as any savage creature. These having no mark upon them belong to him that first takes them. However, the captor commonly purchases these horses very dear, by spoiling better in pursuit, in which case he has little to make himself amends besides the pleasure of the chase." — Robert Beverly, *The History and Present State of Virginia*, London, 1705.

FOWLING

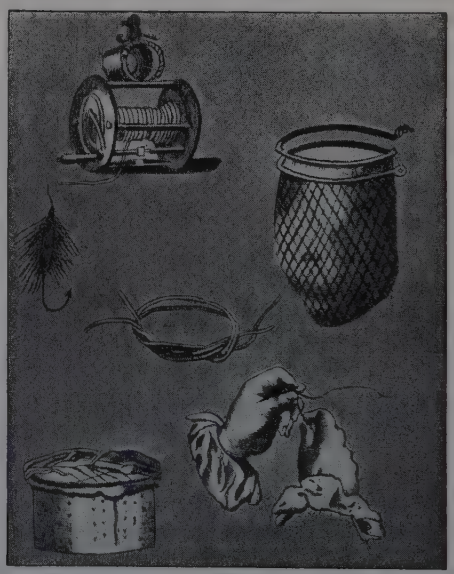
The colonial fowler adapted English methods to conditions in America. Although the fowling piece became much more important in the pursuit of birds, nets and traps, so widely used in England, were not untried. In the autumn, when the wild pigeons were migrating southward, nets were spread to ensnare them, tame birds being used as decoys. The forest turkeys were lured with grains of corn into holes in the ground which opened into large traps. Netting and trapping offered but tame sport; most fowlers preferred to go forth with gun and dogs in search of game. From blinds of pine and oak boughs the hunter directed trained dogs in scattering a flock of turkeys and then by a skillful use of the "yelp" called up the confused birds within range of his fowling piece. Similar blinds were used along the shores of inlets and creeks in order to secure good shots at the myriads of ducks, geese, swan, and other aquatic fowl, whose ranks were as yet undecimated, though threatened by a more persistent and successful fowler than the Indian had ever been. By the opening of the eighteenth century some communities noted a diminution of feathered game. In 1708 New York provided for a closed season, chiefly to protect the heath-hen on Long Island, but this did not inaugurate any general movement toward conservation of wild life. Although every part of the English colonies was visited by a wide variety of game birds, there were sectional favorites: the canvas-back of the Chesapeake country, the woodcock and grouse in Jersey and Pennsylvania, the heath-hen of Long Island, and from New England to the Carolinas turkeys, pigeons, and quail.

8 "Yelping" up wild turkeys, from a drawing by W. L. Sheppard in *Harper's Weekly*, January 10, 1885

9 Spearing the Salmon, from a drawing by Felix O. C. Darley (1822–88), in *Scenes in Indian Life*, Philadelphia, 1843

THE GENTLE ART OF ANGLING

From the Indians the early settlers learned a fishing technique somewhat different from the gentle art of angling as practiced and expounded by Izaak Walton. In the spring and early summer, just after the corn had been planted, the rivers from the Delaware to the Kennebec were filled with shoals of migratory fish pressing toward fresh water to spawn, or fleeing before schools of predatory sea fish. Then the Indians manned their canoes, darting over the surface of the water to spear or net the salmon, sturgeon, and shad. At night, with pine-knots burning in an improvised brazier above the bow of the boat, they skillfully speared the fish lured toward the light. From the Indian the white man learned the sport of "striking," as it was called, and practiced it long after his preceptor had vanished from the eastern fishing grounds. Although "striking" was highly esteemed by those who acquired skill in the use of the small harpoon, it did not become the popular method of taking fish for sport. Those anxious to secure large catches used small sienes, and cast and stationary nets, but for the true sportsman the angle remained supreme. Tackle was often improvised; rods and flies were hand-made; reels were crude or nonexistent. Yet lack of expensive equipment did not mean that the angler was denied the thrill of luring the wary trout or playing the gamy salmon. Before the end of the seventeenth century even this deficiency was remedied by the importation from England of the latest rods, lines, hooks, and flies.



10 Fishing Tackle, from William S. Osbaldeston, *The British Sportsman*, London, 1792

EARLY FISHING CLUBS

If it be true that angling is a "gentle art which induceth to contemplation," there was propriety in the formation of the first fishing club in the English colonies by a group of Philadelphians on the farm of "Friend William Warner" along the Schuylkill. There, in 1732, while smallpox was raging in their city, thirty devoted anglers, many of them Quakers, founded the "Colony in Schuylkill" with an organization modeled on that of the colonial government. Fifteen years later a "courthouse" was built for the modest outlay of seventeen pounds, and from that time the "colony" opened each season with a formal but inexpensive dinner prepared by the citizens. At the same time zest was added to their enterprise by the development of a friendly rivalry with the "Society of Fort Saint David's," a company of Welshmen who also found the fishing in the Schuylkill alluring. From their respective stations along the river the two clubs spread the fame of perch and catfish and gave their city the most skilled representatives of the angler's art in the thirteen colonies.

11 Seal of the Schuylkill Fishing Company, from *An Authentic Memoir of the Schuylkill Fishing Company*, Philadelphia, 1889

IN NEW NETHERLAND

12 Game of Skittles, from a drawing in *The Sporting Magazine*, London, June 1801

THE natural and spontaneous development of hunting and fishing resulted largely from the lavish offering of woodland and stream. In New Netherland, however, the transit of sports from the Old World to the New was the determining factor. Dutch burghers and farmers shared with their kinsmen in Holland a fondness for games requiring considerable exercise. In the yards adjoining the taverns they could be seen in the evenings and on holidays playing at kaetzen, which possessed the rudiments of modern handball, though the horse-hair filled ball was bounced against post, tree, or wall as opportunity afforded. When women played the game a racket of netting was used to drive the ball, and certain features of modern tennis appeared. There was scarcely a tavern in the colony without its wooden or stone platform, whereon the worthy Dutch burghers might compete at king-pin or skittles. The bowling green, though generally well patronized, was sometimes the scene of great hilarity when the tavern keeper permitted a diversion known as "clubbing the cat." From a strong rope stretched between two posts a lightly coopered barrel containing a live cat was suspended. Each contestant, who paid a small entrance fee, took his turn in hurling a club at the barrel, which finally collapsed releasing an almost crazed cat. The winning blow was that which broke the barrel, while he who caught the cat, amidst the shouts of the spectators, received a bottle of wine.

PULLING THE GOOSE

THE Dutch celebrated their holidays with much noise and rejoicing. New Year's Day, May Day, Shrovetide and St. Nicholas' Day were times of merriment when adults became as children and put aside the cares and responsibilities of life. Associated with Shrovetide in New Netherland was the sport of pulling the goose. Across the road was stretched a rope from which a goose or hare with head well greased was suspended. The young men of the village, mounted on horses, rode at the prize, attempting to pull it down as they dashed by. Sometimes the procedure was altered and the goose was suspended from a rope stretched across a small stream. Each contestant, standing on a plank at the stern of the boat, was rowed swiftly under the prize. If he missed in his grasp, the plank was tipped and a cold plunge was his reward. If successful, he carried home the goose. Despite Peter Stuyvesant's fulminations against it, the sport continued to be popular even after New Netherland became New York.

13 Pulling the Goose, from an old print, courtesy of Miss Esther Singleton and Dodd, Mead & Company, New York

14 Dutch burghers playing kolf, from The Chronicles of America Photoplay, *Peter Stuyvesant*

KOLF

Pulling the goose and similar sports were well enough for country folk, but the Dutch burgher stuck to his bowling on the green or indulged in an occasional game of kolf. Near the links was apt to be one of the pretentious taverns, for the proprietor knew that when the course had been played the "kolfers" would stop for a bowl of punch, lingering over it and their discussion of the game until the room was filled with the aroma of their long pipes. The records do not reveal the exact nature of this sport which many consider an early Dutch version of modern golf. It is clear, however, that there were no well-kept putting greens, carefully arranged hazards, or beautiful fairways. Clubs were heavy, shaped somewhat like hockey sticks, and occasionally faced with metal. The game which lured the burghers from considerations of trade would not be recognized by the modern business man who finds relaxation on the greens and fairways. Probably it was more closely related to hockey, for it seems to have been played at times on the ice, than to the game of golf which had already developed in Scotland.

ON THE ICE

For the northern colonies winter sometimes meant the confinement of life indoors. But this was seldom true of the people of New Netherland. Except in unusually severe weather, snow on the roads and ice on the river called them out-of-doors. In New Amsterdam the Collect Pond was a favorite spot for joyous crowds of young and old, all equipped with skates either strapped on or screwed to their boots. On a good pair of runners from Volendam the stocky Dutch youth achieved an unbelievable agility and grace in cutting fancy curls and figures. There were races in which all ages participated, speeding with ease over the glassy surface in competition for prizes of silver and pewter cups, plates and spoons. Booths or tents were erected on the ice in which hot wine and punch were served when the wind began to pinch the cheeks and nip the ears. With blood tingling and body warmed the skater sought out one of the small sleighs of fantastic shape in which some of the women were wont to await a ride over the ice. At times it was an old lady in a swan who won his favor, but more often a rosy-cheeked girl in a bright blue dolphin went skimming before his powerful glide. Those who had not mastered the art of skating welcomed the first fall of snow which insured good sleighing. Long after New Amsterdam became New York sleighing as well as skating remained a popular recreation. "Their diversions in the winter," wrote Madame Knight in 1704, "is riding sleys about three or four miles out of town where they have houses of entertainment at a place called the Bouwery, and some go to friends' houses who handsomely treat them. . . . I believe we mett fifty or sixty sleys in one day. They fly with great swiftness and some are so furious that they'll turn out of the path for none except a loaden cart." Sleighing was not peculiar to the small settlement on Manhattan Island. Elsewhere the hard-packed snow afforded a smooth surface for those who desired to drive when the roads were not deep-rutted.

15 Sports on the Ice, from an old print, courtesy of Miss Esther Singleton and Dodd, Mead & Company, New York

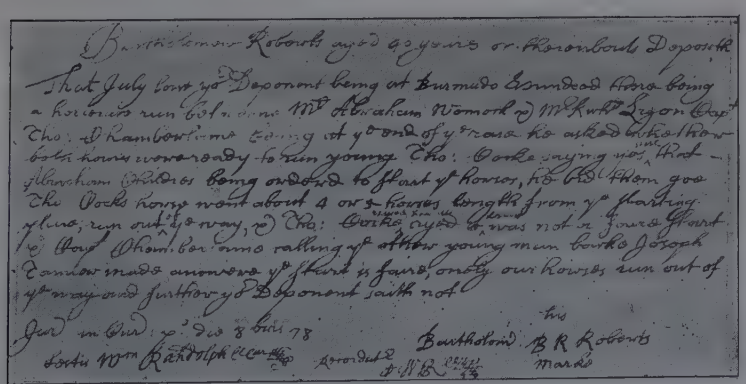
SALISBURY PLAINS

16 Governor Nicolls at the races, from a drawing in Martha J. Lamb, *History of the City of New York*, New York, 1880

During the first century of English colonization such sports as became popular were based almost exclusively upon tests of individual skill or prowess. Few of them were calculated to attract crowds of interested spectators vicariously enjoying the thrill of the participant. During the following century came a notable change. Organized team play was still largely unknown, but cockfighting, bull baiting, gouging, and most important of all, horse racing, greatly increased the number of those who took their recreation without the flexing of a muscle. Responsibility for the change cannot be definitely fixed. Several factors were probably important. The accumulation of property in the older settlements was slowly creating a leisure class with money to spend for amusements. The transition to the royal type of colonial government brought in the train of the royal governors subordinate officials who attempted to establish the standards of fashionable pleasure lovers in the mother country. An early omen of the new era came when Governor Nicolls of New York, playing the rôle of benevolent despot, ordered races to be run not so much for "the divertissement of youth as for the encouraging the bettering of the breed of horses." A course was laid out on Salisbury Plains, the present site of Garden City, where, in the words of a contemporary chronicler, "You shall find neither stick nor stone to hinder the horse-heels, or endanger them in their races." Governor Lovelace continued the tests of speed inaugurated by his predecessor, and after 1670 Salisbury Plains was annually the scene of a growing concourse, graced by gentlemen and ladies from the little town at the tip of Manhattan Island.

HORSE RACING IN SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY VIRGINIA

In New York the success of the turf meetings seems to have depended upon the patronage of the Governor and his retinue. Such was not the case in the southern colonies. The records of the seventeenth century reveal the Virginians as indefatigable in their efforts to produce fleet racers. The owner of many a good mare found himself lightened in purse because of his confidence that she was a trifle faster than his neighbor's. Though the colonial law held that racing was "a sport for gentlemen alone," every class in the community was drawn to the track when rumor carried abroad the probability of a match between local favorites. Originally private trials of speed, these races by the end of the century had become important gatherings of the countryside. The principals in the match often rode their own horses, but jockeys were becoming more common and attention was paid to the weight which the horse carried. Victory was earnestly desired not simply because of stakes and side bets involved, but because of the owner's pride in his mount. The Virginians understood and loved their horses.



17 Notice of a horse race in seventeenth-century Virginia, from the Henrico County Records, October 1678, courtesy of the Virginia State Library, Richmond

18 Malvern Hill, from a photograph by H. P. Cook, Richmond, Va.

VIRGINIA RACE COURSES

More than a dozen race courses appear in the Virginia records for the seventeenth century. Probably there were others where disputes over speed or endurance were settled by the planters without resort to the popular courses. In many instances the tracks were little more than level stretches in a field which after a period of cultivation had been abandoned to native grasses. Some were kept in good condition according to the standards of the period, but few were equal to the poorest modern courses. There were no jockey clubs to supervise match races; the judges present were never able to enforce any definite code of rules; and a large number of contests on the turf were perpetuated in the county courts, some finally reaching the high court for adjudication. In Henrico County the planters along the James had recourse to five rather indifferent courses: Bermuda Hundred, Conecock, Varina, Ware and Malvern Hill. More frequently patronized were Willoughby's Old Field in Richmond, Coan Race Course in Westmoreland, Fair Fields and Scotland Race Grounds in Northumberland and the straightaway track at Yeocomico. At Rappahannock Church, Smith's Field in Northampton and Devil's Field in Surrey the quarter-mile was a favorite distance, though three and four-mile heat races often tested the endurance of the entries.

NARRAGANSETT PACERS

The Puritans who came into the Massachusetts Bay region, determined to found and defend a New World Zion, brought horses in their train. Some of the leaders may have conceived that they would be valuable in the event of a struggle to defend the young colony. At any rate it is certain that they were brought for utility rather than pleasure. New Englanders and Virginians looked for different qualities in their horses. Great distances and narrow trails kept the southern settlers in the saddle and made them horsemen. In New England the more compact character of settlement and the demands of trade encouraged the cutting of roads over which goods could be hauled in carts and small wagons. The northern colonist rode behind his team, or hitched a faithful plodder to the chaise. Interest in racing would have developed slowly in New England even if Puritan consciences had not regarded it as a waste of time and money. It is not to be supposed, however, that there were no lovers of fast horses northeast of New York. In Rhode Island, which scarcely came within the orbit of Puritanism, the Narragansett pacer had achieved fame late in the seventeenth century. This saddle horse of easy gait and remarkable powers was highly esteemed by the planters of the region and was much in demand for export to Virginia and the West Indies. Governor William Robinson was an enthusiastic breeder of pacers. Their ability to ford streams readily so pleased him that he would ride no other as he superintended the affairs of his thirteen-hundred-acre farm. He often joined the throngs that watched the pacing races on Little Neck Beach near South Kingston early in the eighteenth century. A few decades later the exportation of horses had reached such a point that Rhode Islanders feared the colony was losing its best pacers.

WHEREAS the beſt HORSES of this Colony have been ſent off from Time to Time to the Weſt-Indies and elſewhere, by which the Breed is much dwindled, to the great Detriment of both Merchant and Farmer; therefore a Number of public-ſpirited Gentlemen of Newport, for the Good of the Colony, and to encourage the Farmers to breed better Horſes for the future, have collected a Purſe of ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS to be Run for on Thurſday the Fifth of May next, on *Eaſton's* Beach, free for any Horſe, Mare, or Gelding bred in this Colony, agreeable to the following Articles, viz.

A Purſe of One Hundred Dollars

TO BE RUN FOR on Thurſday the 5th of May next, on the Courſe of *Eaſton's* Beach, free for any Horſe, Mare, or Gelding, bred in this Colony, carrying Weight for Inches; fourteen Hands carries 9 Stone, and for every Inch over or under to carry 7 Pounds, agreeable to his Majeſty's Articles, the beſt of three 2 Mile Heats, paying Two Dollars Entrance, or double at the Poſt. Proper Certificates of the Places where the Horſes were bred, to be produced under the Hands of the Breeders at the Time of Entrance.

All Horſes that run for this Purſe, to be entered with Mr. *Matthew Couzzins*, Merchant, in Newport, on Monday the 2d of May.——Not leſs than three Horſes to ſtart for this Purſe.——The Entrance Money to be run for the next Day, by all the Horſes, except the winning and diſtanced Horſes.——The whole to be under the Inſpection of three Gentlemen of Newport.

19 From the *Newport Mercury*, April 4, 1763

HORSEMANSHIP IN VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND

THERE were undoubtedly Narragansett pacers in Virginia and Maryland at the opening of the eighteenth century. In the decade of the 'twenties the Reverend Hugh Jones found the Virginians so attached to riding that almost every planter kept at least one saddle horse. He particularly admired the strength and fleetness of the natural pacers, qualities which were prominent in those imported from the Narragansett country. Other commentators have testified that in Virginia and Maryland the planters would often walk two miles to catch a horse running at large in order to have a mount for a one-mile journey. Their horsemanship was the subject of much derogatory comment on the part of English observers, but the criticism may be somewhat discounted since English horsemen were not familiar with the type of pacers which constituted the bulk of American saddle horses. It is safe to assume that English riders paid more attention to form than did the southern squires. It is doubtful whether they knew the merits of a superior horse or understood how to conquer an untamed one as well as their kinsmen south of the Delaware who frequently brought wild horses into their stables and successfully trained them.

> The common Planters leading eaſy Lives don't much admire Labour, or any manly Exerciſe, except Horſe-Racing, nor Diverſion, except Cock-Fighting, in which ſome greatly delight. This eaſy Way of Living, and the Heat of the Summer makes ſome very lazy, who are then ſaid to be Climate-ſtruck.
>
> The Saddle-Horſes, though not very large, are hardy, ſtrong, and fleet; and will pace naturally and pleaſantly at a prodigious Rate.
>
> They are ſuch Lovers of Riding, that almoſt every ordinary Perſon keeps a Horſe; and I have known ſome ſpend the Morning in ranging ſeveral Miles in the Woods to find and catch their Horſes only to ride two or three Miles to Church, to the Court-Houſe, or to a Horſe-Race, where they generally appoint to meet upon Buſineſs; and are more certain of finding thoſe that they want to ſpeak or deal with, than at their Home.

20 From Hugh Jones, *The Present State of Virginia*, London, 1724

FOX-HUNTING SQUIRES

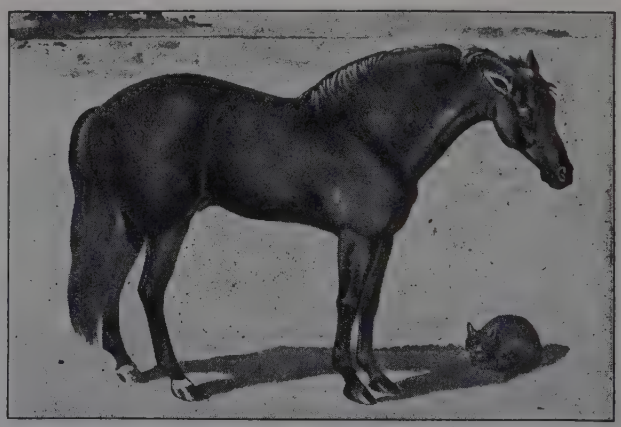
THE southern planter gave prominent place to the cross-country chase. Fox hunting was known to Virginians in the seventeenth century, before it became an institution in England, and the sport grew in popularity with the expanding social activities of later generations. Washington and his friends were enthusiastic fox hunters, though they regretted that they had not better hounds. John Bernard, the English comedian, found much in Virginia that amused him, but he seems to have been genuinely pained by the contrast between the riding to hounds in his native land and that which he encountered along the Potomac. "Hunting in Virginia," he wrote in 1799, "is a far different thing from its English original. The meaning of the latter is simple and explicit. A party of horsemen meet at an appointed spot and hour, to turn up or turn out a deer or a fox, and pursue him to a standstill. Here a local peculiarity — the abundance of game — upsets all system. The practise seemed to be for the company to enter a wood, beat up the quarters for anything from a hog to a snake, and take their chance for a chase. If the game went off well, and it was possible to follow it through the thickets and morasses, ten to one that at every hundred yards up sprung so many rivals that horses and hunters were puzzled which to select, and every buck, if he chose could have a deer to himself — an arrangement that I was told proved generally satisfactory, since it enabled 'the worst rider, when all was over, to talk about as many difficulties surmounted as the best." — JOHN BERNARD, *Retrospections of America, 1797–1811*, New York, 1887.

21 Washington and Friends after a Day's Hunt, from a lithograph published by John Smith, Philadelphia, 1868, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York

22 The old court house and Friends' meeting house, Philadelphia, from a lithograph in the possession of the publishers

A QUAKER CITY

Between the hard-riding planters of Virginia and Maryland and the fashionable followers of the races in New York was the province of Pennsylvania, where sober Quakers and devout Pietists were engaged in the serious business of establishing their hearthstones and traditions. They found little time for life's frivolities. Even Philadelphia, prosperous port that it was, felt the effect of the somber thought of many of its citizens. In 1716 the yearly meeting of the Society of Friends advised the well intentioned that disciplinary steps should be taken against "such as run races, either on horseback or on foot, laying wagers, or use any gaming or needless and vain sports and pastimes, for our time passeth swiftly away and our pleasure and delight ought to be in the law of the Lord." There is evidence that not all Philadelphians listened to the admonition of the yearly meeting. Race Street perpetuates the road which led out to the grounds, where match races between pacers were arranged as early as 1726. Not for another thirty years, however, did the people of the city patronize turf events as regularly as the residents of Williamsburg, Annapolis, Charleston, and New York.



23 Godolphin Arabian, from a drawing after the painting by D. Murrier in John H. Wallace, *The Horse of America* New York, 1897

THE THOROUGHBRED

The precise origin of the English thoroughbred has never been determined. It is certain, however, that the breed owes much to three great sires, the Byerley Turk, the Darley Arabian and the Godolphin Arabian. In the veins of the last there coursed the blood not of the Arab but of the fleet steeds from North Africa. Prior to 1730 there were few, if any, blooded racers in the American colonies, but in that year the English thoroughbred stallion Bulle Rock, sired by the Darley Arabian, was imported by Samuel Patton and Samuel Gest of Virginia. This was but the beginning of a general importation from England, which in the forty-five years before the Revolution established the thoroughbred in America.

NOTICE is hereby given,

THAT on Thurſday and Friday, the 30th and 31ſt Days of this Inſtant *May* will be Run for at *John Conner*'s in *Anne Arundel* County, the Sum of Ten Pounds Currency, the Firſt Day: And on the following Day, will be Run for at the ſame Place, the Sum of Five Pounds Currency: By any Horſe, Mare, or Gelding, (*Old Ranter* and *Limber Sides* excepted); to carry 115 Pounds, three Heats, the Courſe two Miles.

The Horſes, &c. to be Entered with *John Conner*, before 10 o'Clock in the Forenoon of each Day of Running: paying Entrance-Money, 15*s.* the firſt Day; and 10*s.* the Day following.

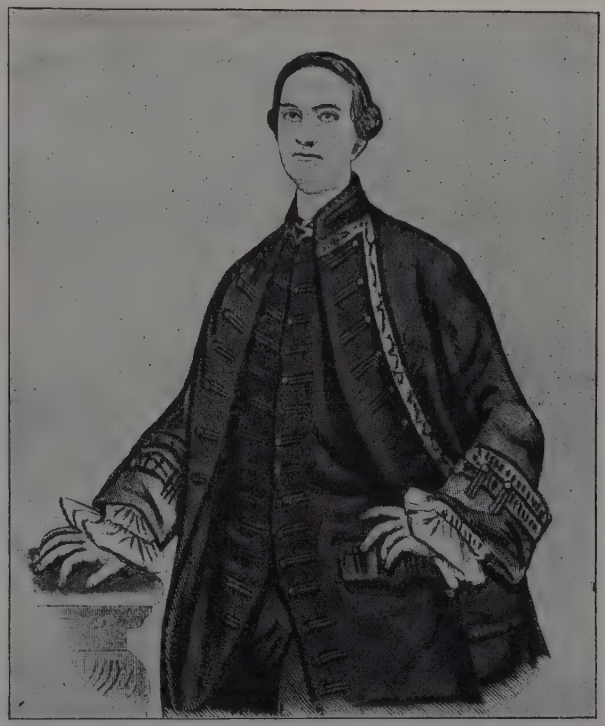
24 Early notice of a Maryland race, from the *Maryland Gazette*, May 17, 1745

JOCKEY CLUBS

With the vogue of the thoroughbred came the jockey club. If the formality of English turf events was to be reproduced in the colonies, control would have to be placed in the hands of competent authorities. In 1735 the South Carolina planters and merchants organized a jockey club to supervise the spring and autumn meetings at the newly built course in Charleston. Annapolis was headquarters in 1745 for a club which included the leading horsemen of Maryland, Virginia, and Pennsylvania. Before the Revolution Virginia had its own organization. The authority of these early jockey clubs is indicated but vaguely in existing records. Certainly, their disciplinary power was slight. They scheduled meets, authorized purses, and determined rules of procedure on many courses. The jockey's calling had not, however, become a recognized profession in racing circles.

MARYLAND CHAMPIONS

During the three decades prior to the Revolution the southern colonies vied with each other to produce the fleetest racers. In the competition Maryland at first held an advantage which was soon challenged by Virginians and Carolinians. In 1747 Samuel Ogle, holding a new commission as Governor of Maryland, returned to Annapolis after a five years' sojourn in England. He brought with him the thoroughbred, Sparke, a gift from Lord Baltimore, and the brood mare, Queen Mab. Under his patronage horse breeders were encouraged to import new stock and the matches between blooded horses became the premier events of the race meetings. Governor Sharpe continued the work of his predecessor, devoting much of his time to the development of a stable which rivaled that of Colonel Benjamin Tasker at Belair. The pride of Colonel Tasker's establishment was Selima, daughter of the Godolphin Arabian. She was mated with Governor Sharpe's great horse, Othello, and the foal was Selim, destined to bring victory to the Maryland colors on many a track. Hailed as a representative of American stock, Selim was frequently pitted against English imports to prove the superiority of colonial horses. It was with genuine regret that the *Maryland Gazette* for May 16, 1768, chronicled his first defeat. "The hundred pounds purse at Upper Marlborough has been won by Dr. Hamilton's English horse, Figure, beating the hitherto terrific Selim. As many incidents occur in a four mile heat, and we have no particulars of the sport, it is but justice to the gallant American that the public should suspend its decisive opinion until the champions have met next October. . . . Selim, a grandson of Godolphin Arabian and got by Governor Sharpe's valiant Othello has till this event proved in every dispute unconquerable."

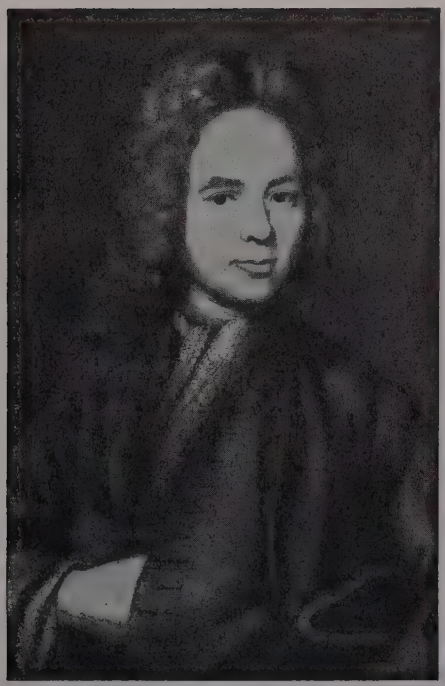


25 Governor Horatio Sharpe, from a drawing after a painting, in John Thomas Scharf, *History of Maryland*, Baltimore, 1879

26 Annapolis Subscription Plate, May 4, 1743, from Francis Barnum Culver, *Blooded Horses of Colonial Days*, Baltimore, 1922

THE ANNAPOLIS MEET

That Maryland horses kept the standards of American racing on a high plane is evident from a description of the spring meeting at Annapolis. In 1770 an enthusiastic follower of the turf wrote to his English friends: "Our races which are just concluded continued four days, and afforded amusement to those who are attached to the pleasures of the turf; and surprising as it may appear, I assure you there are few meetings in England better attended or where more capital horses are exhibited. In order to encourage the breed of this noble animal a jockey club has been instituted, consisting of many principal gentlemen, in this and the adjacent provinces, many of whom have imported from Britain at a very great expense horses of high reputation." — W. Eddis, *Letters from America, 1769 to 1777*, London, 1792.



27 James DeLancey, 1703–60, from a portrait by Gerardus Duyckinck (1695–1742), courtesy of Thomas B. Clark, New York

NORTHERN SPORTSMEN

North of Maryland the center of racing interest was New York City and its environs. After 1760 Philadelphia meets were well patronized by southern breeders, but the prestige of the Long Island and Manhattan courses was never threatened. Salisbury Plains had developed into Newmarket and was rebuilt in imitation of its English namesake in 1764. Here Lewis Morris' American Childers and James DeLancey's bay horse, Lath, competed with Maryland and Virginia thoroughbreds for the subscription plate. Nearby was the track around Beaver Pond, where the Free Mason's Purse was offered for the best two out of three heats of three miles each. New Yorkers supported the Long Island tracks well, despite the inconvenience of reaching them. As early as 1750 the *New York Postboy* reported that "upward of seventy chairs and chaises" and many more horses were carried across the Brooklyn ferry the day before the opening race at Newmarket. For less formal race meetings, especially those which settled disputes between the Morrises and the DeLanceys, there were courses on Manhattan. A beautiful one lay in the region of the Lispenard meadows in Greenwich Village hard by the country estates of Sir Peter Warren and William Bayard. The DeLanceys maintained a private track fronting on the Bowery just north of First Street, where Anthony Rutgers, Oliver DeLancey, and the Earl of Stirling were wont to test the speed of their thoroughbreds.

Tuesday Night last a Fire happen'd at the Seat of Joſeph Turner, Eſq; at Mr. amenſing, which deſtroy'd the Kitchen, Wath Houſe, and Dairy Houſe; but by pulling down a Piazza, that join'd them to the Great Houſe, it was happily ſaved.

ANNAPOLIS.

On the 5th Inſtant a great Match was Run at *Glouceſter* Race Ground in *Virginia*, a Four Mile Heat, Col *Byrd*'s Cheſnut Horſe *Trial*, againſt any that could be brought for 500 Piſtoles. One Horſe and three Mares ſtarted againſt him, and they came in thus,

Col. *Taſker*'s Bay Mare *Selima*, 1ſt
Col. *Byrd*'s Cheſnut Horſe *Trial*, 2d
Col. *Thornton*'s Grey Mare ——, 3d
Col. *Tayloe*'s Bay Mare, *Jenny Cameron*, 4th
His Bay Horſe *Childers*, diſtanced

Cuſtom-Houſe, Annapolis, *Entr'd ſince* November 23.

Ship Cheſter, John Lorain, from Briſtol;
Sloop William, L. Harris, from Virgin Iſlands;
Brig Rebecca, Charles Giles, from Rhode Iſland;
Schooner Dolphin, David Maſury, from Salem;

28 Notice of a horse race between horses from Maryland and Virginia, from *The Maryland Gazette*, December 21, 1752

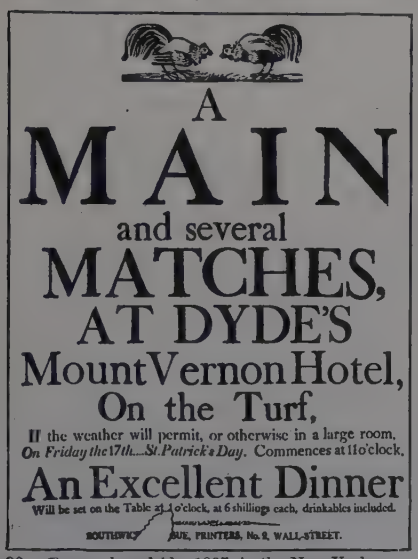
INTER-COLONIAL RIVALRY

Intense was the rivalry between the various colonies in support of their favorites. Nothing delighted Carolinians more than to witness the triumph of a local horse over a vaunted champion from Virginia or Maryland. Such matches were specially arranged and brought a holiday spirit to the community where the race was run. Early in the morning a small army of farmers and planters, augmented by workmen and apprentice boys and a detachment of grinning negroes, followed the dusty road which led to a long oval laid out on the green pasture. Short races between local horses settled disputes of long standing or fanned the flames of partisanship till the heat of violent combat was engendered. By the time the preliminary racing and fighting had ended, carts and chaises, in which sat the small feminine contingent, were drawn up along the home stretch. Then came the time for the big race. A tenseness came over the entire crowd. The local favorite and the foreign champion, both having been carefully appraised by the knowing horsemen among the spectators, were ridden to the starting post. Down went the flag and the racers were off to the roar of their supporters. If the foreign horse won the first heat, gloom settled over the assemblage; tears trickled from the eyes of some overwrought partisans who had wagered more than was wise. Victory for the horse of their choice in the next heat restored hope. Now was the final test. The shout which sent the racers away from the post was hushed as they rounded the distant turn, then broke into pandemonium as the local favorite under whip and spur pulled away down the home stretch to win by a head. Up on the shoulders of his friends went the young jockey, while the grooms reverently cared for the horse that had upheld the honor of the province.

THE VOGUE OF THE FIGHTING COCK

29 From a lithograph, *A Main of Cocks — The First Battle*, by Currier & Ives, New York

At the race meeting, on county court days, and incidental to the colonial fairs, there were other sports besides horse racing. Brutal wrestling matches degenerated into gouging contests; bulls were baited with dogs; and fighting cocks were matched for the edification of the crowd. Cock-fighting was undoubtedly the most popular of these lesser diversions. Introduced from England during the Restoration period, it was enthusiastically received by all classes from Annapolis to Charleston. It acquired fewer followers in the northern colonies, though Cotton Mather denounced it under the name of "cock-scaling" in 1705 as one of the Boston iniquities. Devotees in New York gathered twice a week at the pit in the Bowery near Broome Street. Travelers in the southern colonies who had a taste for the sport seldom failed to find a match, or "main" as it was called, even in the smaller towns and villages. Sometimes twenty pairs were pitted against each other until all save one had been killed or injured; on other occasions a champion cock was matched against all comers until his strength was gone. In ancient Greece these courageous birds may have fired Athenian youth by the example of their valor, but in eighteenth-century America they were merely the pawns which embellished a system of gambling.



A
MAIN
and several
MATCHES,
AT DYDE'S
Mount Vernon Hotel,
On the Turf,

If the weather will permit, or otherwise in a large room, *On Friday the 17th....St. Patrick's Day.* Commences at 11 o'clock.

An Excellent Dinner

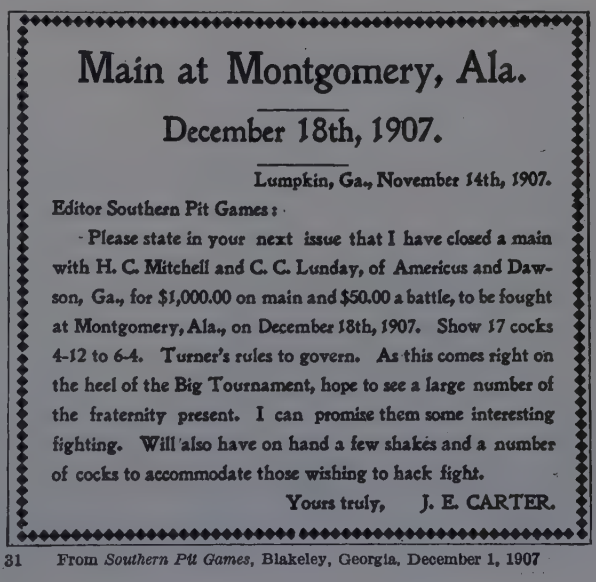
Will be set on the Table at 1 o'clock, at 6 shillings each, drinkables included.

SOUTHWICK [illegible] STREET, PRINTERS, No. 2, WALL-STREET.

30 From a broadside, 1807, in the New York Historical Society

A VIRGINIA COCKFIGHT

Elkanah Watson, the New England merchant, was traveling through Virginia in 1787, when some of his acquaintances invited him to witness a cockfight in Hampton County. "The roads as we approached the scene," he wrote, "were alive with carriages, horses, and pedestrians, black and white, hastening to the point of attraction. Several houses formed a spacious square, in the center of which was arranged a large cock-pit; surrounded by many genteel people, promiscuously mingled with the vulgar and debased. Exceedingly beautiful cocks were produced, armed with long, steel-pointed gaffles, which were firmly attached to their natural spurs. The moment the birds were dropped, bets ran high. The little heroes appeared trained to the business; and were not the least disconcerted by the crowd or shouting. . . . Advancing nearer and nearer, they flew upon each other at the same instant with a rude shock, the cruel gaffles being driven into their bodies, and, at times, directly through their heads. Frequently one, or both, would be struck dead at the first blow. I soon sickened at this barbarous sport, and retired under the shade of a wide-spread willow." — Elkanah Watson, *Men and Times of the Revolution*, New York, 1856. Though cocking has lost its appeal and has fallen under the ban of the law, the accompanying broadside shows that in some parts of the nation the crow of the fighting cock was still heard in the twentieth century.



Main at Montgomery, Ala.

December 18th, 1907.

Lumpkin, Ga., November 14th, 1907.

Editor Southern Pit Games:

Please state in your next issue that I have closed a main with H. C. Mitchell and C. C. Lunday, of Americus and Dawson, Ga., for $1,000.00 on main and $50.00 a battle, to be fought at Montgomery, Ala., on December 18th, 1907. Show 17 cocks 4-12 to 6-4. Turner's rules to govern. As this comes right on the heel of the Big Tournament, hope to see a large number of the fraternity present. I can promise them some interesting fighting. Will also have on hand a few shakes and a number of cocks to accommodate those wishing to hack fight.

Yours truly, J. E. CARTER.

31 From *Southern Pit Games*, Blakeley, Georgia, December 1, 1907

32 Bear Baiting, from *The Sporting Magazine*, London, January, 1795

ROUGH SPORT AT COLONIAL FAIRS

Like its English prototype the colonial fair was a market which brought buyers and sellers together. Not all who attended, however, made merchandising their sole concern. Sometimes the fair lasted for several days, affording opportunity for participation in the sports so popular on court days or field days in the southern colonies. Wrestlers competed for beautifully fretted firelocks; runners raced for silver buckles, a pair of shoes, or a pair of gloves; energetic youths performed fantastic gyrations in pursuit of the greased pig which they hoped to take home as a prize. Others, less inclined to exercise, watched the cudgeling bouts, cockfights, or the baiting of bulls, bears, and other animals. Perhaps it was but an indication of the lack of wholesome sport and amusement in America that the eighteenth-century colonists turned with enthusiasm to animal-baiting at a time when the better element in the mother country was refusing to countenance it. The crowd which watched the dogs worry a bear to death in 1763 at the De Lancey Arms in New York probably contained a more liberal sprinkling of reputable gentlemen than did the congregation at the bear gardens in London. Bull baiting was frequently advertised in the press either as an attraction at some southern gathering or as part of the tavernkeeper's hospitality. One innkeeper with a penchant for verse stated in his broadside,

> "This notice gives to all who covet,
> Baiting the bull and dearly love it."

AND for the *Entertainment* and *Diverſion* of all Gentlemen and others, that ſhall reſort thereto, the following PRIZES are given to be contended for, at the Fair, *viz.*

A good Hat to be Cudgell'd for; and to be given to the Perſon that fairly wins it, by the common Rules of Play.

A Saddle of 40 *s.* Value, to be run for, once round the Mile Courſe, adjacent to this City, by any Horſe, Mare or Gelding, carrying Horſeman's Weight, and allowing Weight for Inches. A handſome Bridle to be given to the Horſe that comes in Second. And a good Whip to the Horſe that comes in Third.

A Pair of Silver Buckles, Value 20 *s.* to be run for by Men, from the *College* to the *Capitol*. A Pair of Shoes to be given to him that comes in Second. And a Pair of Gloves to the Third.

A Pair of Pumps to be danc'd for by Men.

A handſome Firelock to be exercis'd for; and given to the Perſon that performs the Manual Exerciſe beſt.

A Pig, with his Tail ſoap'd, to be run after; and to be given to the Perſon that catches him, and lifts him off the Ground fairly by the Tail.

There will be ſeveral other Prizes given: And as the Fair is to hold Three Days, there will be Horſe-racing, and a Variety of Diverſions every Day; and the Prizes not here particularly mentioned, (for want of Room) will be then publickly declared, and appropriated in the beſt Manner.

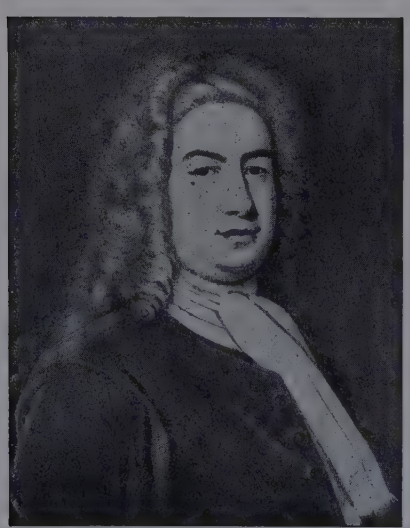
The Horſes that run for the Saddle, are to be Enter'd before Ten o'Clock on *Wedneſday* Morning next, with Mr. *Henry Bowcock*, in *Williamſburg*; thoſe that are not Contributors, to pay 2 *s.* 6 *d.* at Entrance. The Horſe that wins the Saddle, not to run for any other Prize this Fair.

Proper Perſons will be appointed to have the Direction and Management of the Fair, and to decide any Controverſies that may happen, in relation to the Bounties and Prizes to be beſtowed.

33 From the *Virginia Gazette*, November 30, 1739

GENTLEMEN OF LEISURE

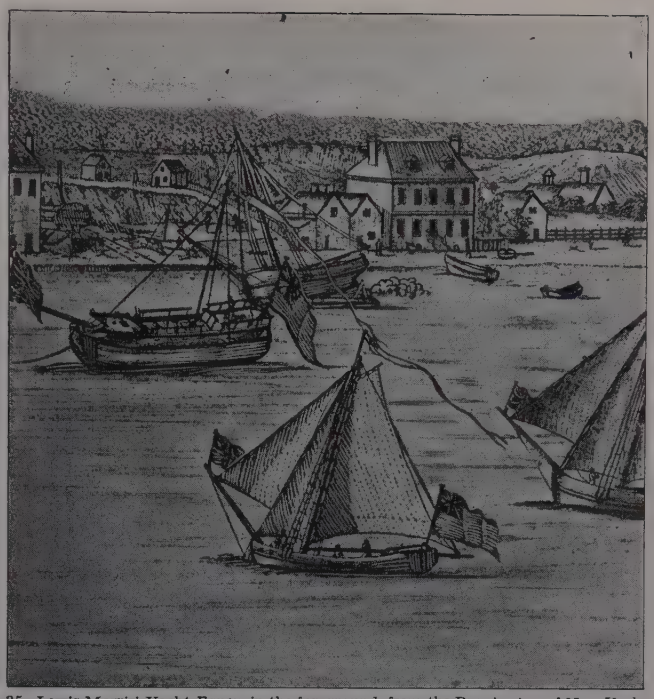
In general the southern planters devoted more time to recreation than their equally prosperous friends in the northern towns. If the emerging merchant class of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia had not yet learned to play as gracefully as the gentlemen of Maryland and Virginia, there were outstanding exceptions who imitated as far as possible their English peers. Governor Burnet and his New York friends fenced, played golf, or threw bowls on the green when there were no races to attend on Long Island. His successor, Governor Montgomerie, was an equally enthusiastic sportsman, owning a "fine large barge with awning and damask curtains" which he loved to sail. Not long after the "eleven of Prince George's county" in Maryland and "the eleven South River Gentlemen" contended at cricket, a team of New Yorkers defeated an eleven from England with great ease. In 1766 James Rivington advertised that he had imported cricket balls, racquets for fives — a game similar to handball — and golf clubs, but there is no evidence that any of these games were extensively played. While it is possible from fragmentary records to overestimate the amount of time which gentlemen of leisure devoted to out-of-door sports, there can be little doubt that as the frontier was pushed westward recreation assumed a larger significance.



34 Governor William Burnet, 1688–1728, from a painting by an unknown artist in the State House, Boston, Mass.

YACHTING AND BOATING

So great was the demand for ships to carry passengers and goods during the early colonial period that few were constructed merely for pleasure purposes. Occasionally a wealthy merchant or retired ship captain placed an order for a boat to suit his fancy. Lewis Morris, one-time Governor of New Jersey, owned a small sloop, *Fancy*, in which he cruised the waters of New York harbor early in the eighteenth century. "Well-fitted pleasure boats" were now and then advertised in the New York and Philadelphia papers after the middle of the century. They probably were not so elegantly furnished as Governor Montgomerie's barge or the yacht which Captain Roddin, a New York merchant overtaken by financial reverses, regretfully offered for sale in 1751. By the close of the century when every proprietor whose land lay along the water front had his private wharf, there must have been many small sloops and row boats used for the short excursions in which the northern colonists delighted.

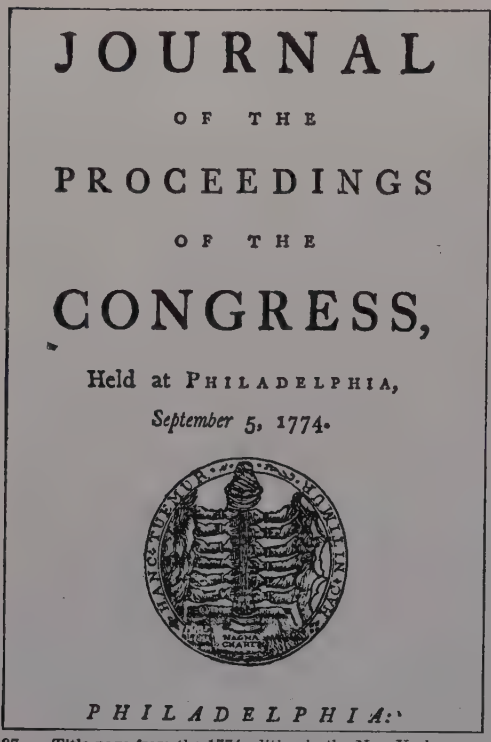


35 Lewis Morris' Yacht *Fancy*, in the foreground, from the Burgis view of New York, 1719, in I. N. Phelps Stokes, *Iconography*, Vol. I. © New York, 1928

A VIRGINIA BOAT RACE

Many southern gentlemen, like Robert Carter of Nomini Hall, enjoyed the racing of small boats, manned by negro oarsmen. Philip Fithian, a young tutor in the Carter family, has left us a concise account of such a race, which he witnessed at Hobb's Hole on the Rappahannock in 1774. One of a company of forty-five ladies and gentlemen, he was privileged to view the proceedings from the deck of the "stately ship" *Beaufort*, whose master, Captain Dobby, was host to the group. "The boats were to start, to use the language of jockeys, immediately after dinner; a boat was anchored down the river at a mile distance — Captain Dobby and Captain Benson steered the boats in the race — Captain Benson had five oarsmen; Captain Dobby had six — It was ebb-tide — The betts were small — chiefly given to the negroes who rowed — Captain Benson won the first race — Captain Purchace offered to bett ten dollars that with the same boat and same hands, only having liberty to put a small weight in the stern, he would beat Captain Benson — He was taken, and came out best only half the boat's length — about sunset we left the ship and went all to Hobb's Holl, where a ball was agreed on." — Philip V. Fithian, *Journal and Letters, 1767–1774*, Princeton, New Jersey, 1900. The rivalry between such crews was seldom keen but the contests furnished a pleasing diversion incidental to the ball which was often the chief attraction.

36 Councillor Robert Carter of Nomini Hall, from the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723–92)



JOURNAL

OF THE

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

CONGRESS,

Held at PHILADELPHIA,

September 5, 1774.

PHILADELPHIA:

37 Title-page from the 1774 edition in the New York Public Library

THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS

In the year that Philip Fithian enjoyed the social graces of the wealthy Virginians, members of the First Continental Congress at Philadelphia entered into a solemn engagement known as the "Continental Association." By its terms the delegates bound themselves and, so far as possible, their constituents to "discountenance and discourage every species of extravagance and dissipation, especially all horse racing, and all kinds of gaming, cock fighting, exhibition shows, plays and other expensive diversions and entertainments." Though the mind of New England seems preponderant in this negation, it apparently carried weight with those sympathetically inclined toward the more important objectives of the Congress. At any rate the impending conflict with the mother country diminished perceptibly popular interest in sports and amusements. James De Lancey, for example, destined to become an active Loyalist, sold his stable of racers and abandoned the turf.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE REVOLUTION

War disrupts all the normal activities of a people. It compels constant readjustment to quickly changing conditions. If foreign invasion be involved, that readjustment may take the form of temporary acceptance of the standards and customs of the invader. This was well exemplified in the influence of the Revolutionary War upon the diversions of the American people. Between 1775 and 1783 the civil strife disrupted the normal development of recreation. At the same time the presence of large numbers of the British troops quartered in the larger towns of the seaboard brought the populace into contact with a new attitude toward play. Officers and men, when off duty, like soldiers in all ages, were inveterate seekers of amusement. The dances and balls, masques and pageants, ending in Howe's great extravaganza in Philadelphia, were but one expression of this spirit. Officers set up cricket grounds and were glad of outside competition. The Seventeenth Dragoons were designated as custodians of the cocks which fought in the pit near Moore's Alley in Philadelphia. After the campaign of 1776 gave the British control of New York and environs they used Long Island as their playground. Racing was revived under the auspices of the leading staff officers, and fox hunts were organized to which their Loyalist friends were invited. At several of the taverns in Brooklyn bulls were tied to the stake and dogs loosed at them for the pleasure of troops and townspeople. There is little indication, however, that the British occupation either broke down American prejudices against wasting time in frivolous amusements or promoted American participation and interest in games and sports.

LONG-ISLAND

HORSE RACE.

TO be run for, on Thurſday the 6th of November next, at the New Lots, on Long-Iſland, about ſeven miles from Brooklyn ferry, a PURSE, value ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS, or upwards, by three years old colts or fillies, the beſt of three heats, one mile to each heat; three quarter blood carrying eight ſtone, half blood ſeven ſtone nine pounds, &c. &c. -----All horſes running for the above purſe to pay one guinea entrance; which money will be run for the next day by all except the winning horſe the firſt day.

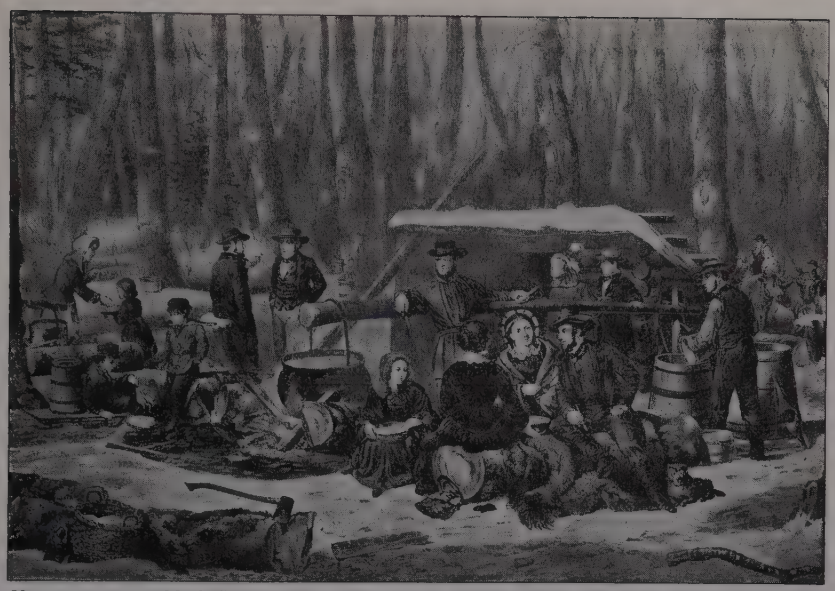
PUBLIC AUCTION.

ON Monday morning, 11 o'clock, at the coffee-houſe, will be ſold, a fine large black horſe, only 5 years old, fit either for ſaddle or chair.

On Tueſday, a quantity of Barcelona wine in

38 Notice of horse race on Long Island, from Rivington's *Gazette*, New York, October 17, 1776

NEW FRONTIERS

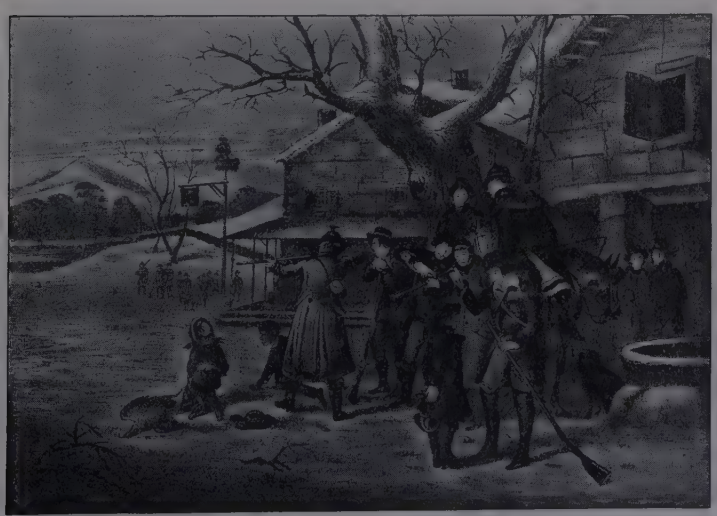


39 Maple Sugaring, from a lithograph by N. Currier, New York, 1856

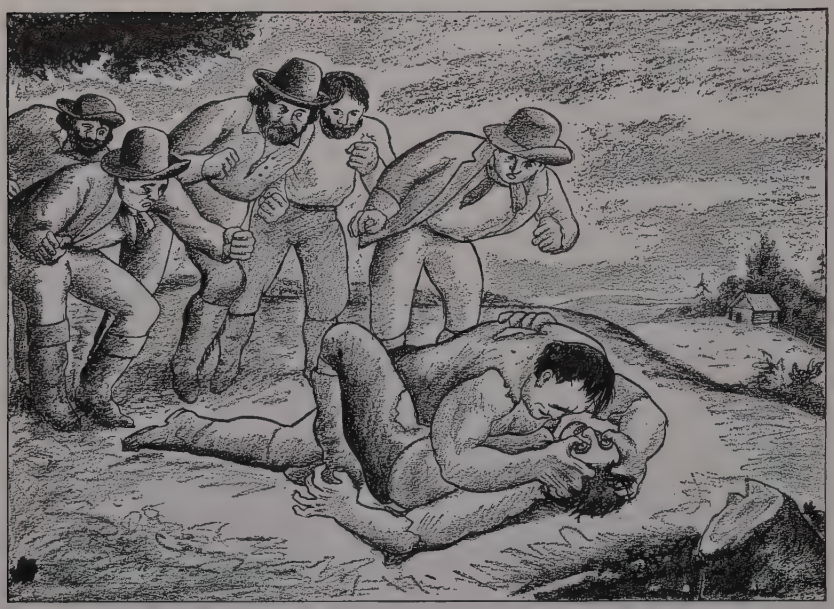
With the return of peace in 1783 the American people turned seriously to the exploitation of the great domain which lay west of the string of settlements closely following the river valleys of the eastern seaboard. Trails were cut through the forest to widen the narrow traces of earlier hunters and fur traders who had marked the passes of the Appalachians. Soon there were caravans of Conestoga wagons, rocking like small boats on a choppy sea, over the first crude mountain roads. They carried pioneers to a new wilderness. The story of the return to primitive conditions on each successive frontier has been well told. It meant hard work to secure a footing in the new environment, little wealth until the wilderness had been made to produce, few social contacts while leisure was rare and neighbors were miles distant. Consequently the pioneers, as had been true of the European adventurers to American shores, had almost no time for play. Their sport they associated in various ways with their work. Organized games and team play they knew not. Yet their days were far from dull. Life itself was the great adventure.

THE SHOOTING MATCH

On northern farms "the plain folk of the soil" had their lighter moments. Festivals and frolics were the more keenly appreciated because of the long seasons of toil between them. The pioneer farmer often found a stimulating joy with his rifle. It was an instrument of succor when game was needed to eke out a scanty larder. It contributed to the pleasure of its owner at target practice and shooting meets as well as in the forest. After the harvest was in, it was customary for young and old to assemble at nearby inns to shoot at targets for prizes. Often these autumn gatherings were known as turkey shoots. Captain Basil Hall, traveling in New England in 1827, was surprised to find posted in a country inn a notice of a shoot in which three hundred fowls were promised as targets. "The landlord laughed at my curiosity but good humoredly enlightened my ignorance by explaining that these shooting matches were so common in America, that he had no doubt I would fall in with them often. . . . It appears that these birds were literally barn door fowls, placed at certain distances, and fired at by any one who chooses to pay the allotted sum for a shot. If he kills the bird, he is allowed to carry it off; otherwise, like a true sportsman, he has the amusement for his money. . . . Turkeys are placed at one hundred and ten yards, if a common musket be used; but at one hundred and sixty-five if the weapon be a rifle. In both cases the price per shot is from six to ten cents." — Basil Hall, *Travels in North America in the Years 1827 and 1828*, Edinburgh, 1829.



40 Shooting Turkeys for Thanksgiving, from an undated lithograph by J. Childs, Philadelphia



41 A Gouging Match, around 1800, from a lithograph, drawn expressly for *The Pageant of America* by Joseph L. Cain

GOUGING — A FRONTIER SPORT

THOUGH the backwoodsman and the frontier farmer contributed little to the annals of American sports, they perpetuated in their rough pastimes a trait which augured well for future athletic achievement. Their wrestling matches and rough-and-tumble-fights, which often terminated in brutal gouging matches, were a constant indication that Americans did not shun bodily contacts. The blow of the fist, the straining of muscle against muscle, so distasteful to some races, was part of the exhilarating sport of the frontier. Travelers in all parts of the country testified to the universal popularity of fighting, even in its extreme form — gouging. Thomas Ashe, Irish adventurer and novelist, has described, perhaps too vividly, an encounter between a Virginian and a Kentuckian not far from the banks of the Ohio. "Very few rounds had taken place," he wrote in his description, "before the Virginian contracted his whole form, drew up his arms to his face, with his hands nearly closed in a concave, by the fingers being bent to the full extension of the flexors, and summoning up all his energy for one act of desperation, pitched himself into the bosom of his opponent. . . . The shock received by the Kentuckian, and the want of breath brought him instantly to the ground. The Virginian never lost his hold; fixing his claws in his hair and his thumbs on his eyes, gave them an instantaneous start from their sockets. The sufferer roared aloud, but uttered no complaint. The Kentuckian not being able to disentangle his adversary from his face, adopted a new mode of warfare. He extended his arms around the Virginian, and hugged him into closer contact with his huge body. The latter, disliking this, made one further effort and fastening on the under lip of his mutilator tore it over the chin. The Kentuckian at length gave out, on which the people carried off the victor, and he preferring a triumph to a doctor . . . suffered himself to be chaired round the grounds as the first rough and tumbler." — THOMAS ASHE, *Travels in America, performed in 1806*, New York, 1811.

RURAL COÖPERATION

THE early farm community placed great emphasis upon individualism. At the same time it was not ignorant of the advantages of coöperation. Many social events in which work was lightened by the play spirit were coöperative ventures. Barn-raisings, log-rollings, corn-huskings, and "plowing-bees," testified to the ability of the frontier farmer to subordinate the individual to the group. Probably they came nearer than any other aspect of farm life to that co-operation so essential in modern team play.

42 A Husking Frolic, from a drawing in William A. Crafts, *Pioneers in the Settlement of America*, Boston, 1877

CHAPTER II

THE ROMANCE OF THE TURF

DURING the third quarter of the twelfth century that meticulous chronicler, William Fitzstephen, recorded in his *Description of the City of London* that the English nobles and gentlemen were wont to repair to the open fields beyond the city's walls where they might indulge in the sports of the turf. There, joined by a considerable concourse of spectators, they tested the speed of their favorites amid the shouts of the jockeys and the cheers of the populace. Six centuries later, if some chronicler of a turf meet in English America had come upon this medieval record he would have found it strikingly similar to his own account. In eighteenth-century Virginia, as in twelfth-century London, the dirt track had not yet supplanted courses marked on the open fields. Spectators, with their lusty cheering of the contestants, still played an intimate and important part. Many still turned from the excitement of the moment quickened in spirit, or lighter of purse. A few changes were notable. The distinction between spirited horses and those of the common sort had taken on new meaning as horsemen learned fundamental principles of breeding and appreciated the blood of the thoroughbred. Into the world of jockeys, trainers and stablemen had come an attempt at orderly supervision by the jockey clubs. Although spontaneous enthusiasm was being supplemented by systematic organization, the sport still retained its romantic appeal.

Indeed, for the American people after the Revolutionary War horse racing became a primary source of amusement. During the two decades following the surrender of Cornwallis, a remarkable quickening of interest was apparent. Thoroughbreds were imported; stables were established; courses were laid out; jockey clubs extended their sway. The expenditures of northern merchants, southern planters and western stock farmers were generous. To that stimulating speed and colorful competition on the turf, which had long stirred men's blood, was added with the passing years a sectional rivalry destined to bring men of every class and condition under its spell. Northern favorites met horses beloved by southern sportsmen in gruelling contests for supremacy. Though these sectional matches were interrupted by a more sinister rivalry between the sections, they established a national interest in the turf which later made possible those classic events staged in the grand manner on magnificent courses.

More peculiarly American and more widely influential than the running races were contests on road and track between trotters or pacers. In them was well exemplified our characteristic desire to justify pleasure in terms of utility. For many Americans the development of speed and stamina in the light-harness horses was an earnest of improvement in the strains of driving and draught horses throughout the country. Furthermore a people who had seldom distinguished themselves in the saddle loved to drive swiftly over improved turnpikes. In regions where the jockey was regarded with suspicion, the skilled reinsman was often held in high esteem. As an exemplar of light-harness racing he carried the love of good horsemanship into the smaller towns and enlivened annual sessions of the county fairs with tests between horses of local fame. Many an American boy born in the generation after the Civil War knew the pacers and trotters of the countryside long before he heard glamorous accounts of famous thoroughbreds and clever jockeys on the metropolitan tracks.

43 Diomed, from an engraving by Cook in *The Sporting Magazine*, London, 1792

THE COMING OF DIOMED

At the opening of the nineteenth century the followers of thoroughbred racing in this country were deeply indebted to two Virginians, Colonel John Tayloe of Mount Airy and Colonel John Hoomes of Bowling Green, who had purchased and imported representatives of the best racing strains in Great Britain. In 1798 Colonel Hoomes secured the horse that was destined to found an enduring family of great racers in America. He was Diomed, winner of the Derby in 1780 and sire of many distinguished horses before he was brought across the Atlantic. For a decade he mingled his blood with native and imported mares, becoming the sire of Sir Archy, Duroc and Potomac. His lineal descendants in the early generations included such champions of the turf as American Eclipse, Sir Henry, Boston and Lexington. Diomed's greatest son was Sir Archy, one of the most impressive representatives of the strain and a sire notably able to perpetuate his best qualities. At the time of his death in 1833 the Diomed blood had become the source of the greatest American racers.

NEW CLUBS AND COURSES

The infusion of new blood into the racing stock of the country was synchronous with the formation of jockey clubs and the building of adequate courses. Prior to the Revolution the race meetings had been contests between gentlemen who owned and trained a few horses and delighted to run them whenever they found competition and a satisfactory track. By the close of the eighteenth century, however, racing stables of size were increasing rapidly in Virginia, Maryland, South Carolina and New York. Clubs were being organized to finance the building of new courses and to regulate the races which were scheduled. The South Carolina Jockey Club, which enjoyed thirty years of prosperity, abandoned the old Newmarket track in 1792 for its newly built Washington Course. Ten years later, when the capital of the United States was rising above the marshes of the Potomac, its citizens formed a jockey club and built the National Course, which was the scene of many a brilliant meet prior to 1846. On Long Island an association attempted in 1819 to improve upon the racing "paths" then in use and a track was laid out in the vicinity of Bath Beach. Two years later a more successful venture resulted in the construction of the fashionable Union Course, which remained for thirty-five years the most important of the numerous tracks in the metropolitan district.

44 Great Race Between Fashion and Blue Dick, over the Union Course, Long Island, June 6, 1844, from a sketch in *The Atlas*, June 9, 1844

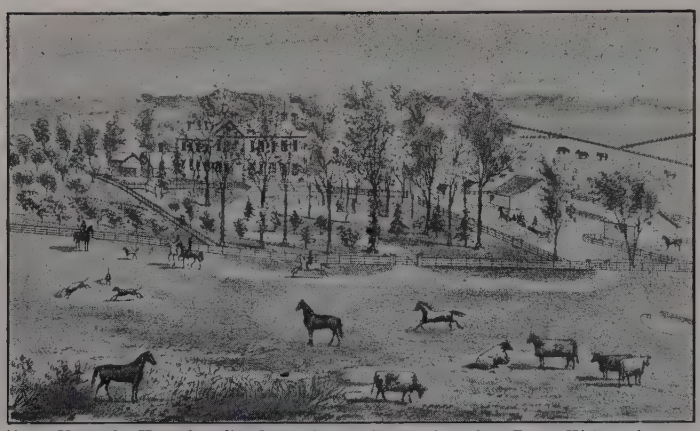
THE FIRST INTER-SECTIONAL RACE

45 Sir Henry, from a painting, 1834, by Edward Troy, in the New York Historical Society

The improvement of courses and the formation of racing associations was indicative of a rapidly expanding interest in the speed of the thoroughbred. The crowds at the tracks grew larger and in some sections more representative of all social classes than the spectators of an earlier day. The horses of such pioneer racing states as Maryland, Virginia and South Carolina were equaled, if not surpassed, by the thoroughbreds of New York, New Jersey and the western states which were drawing on the best blood strains in the East. Though racing was becoming a universal sport, it was not yet national in the sense that horses and owners from all parts of the country competed at great meets. There was consequently unusual interest when it was announced in 1823 that an inter-sectional match race had been arranged between American Eclipse representing the North and Sir Henry, considered the fastest thoroughbred in the South. Both horses were descended from Diomed. American Eclipse was by Duroc, while the sire of Sir Henry was the great Sir Archy. From dawn until the hour set for the first heat, according to a contemporary account, the road from New York to the Union Course was enshrouded by the dust from a steady procession of pedestrians, horsemen and carriages. More than fifty thousand spectators were on the grounds when Sir Henry and Eclipse came to the post carrying the proper weights for their respective ages. The challenge had specified the best two out of three four-mile heats for twenty thousand dollars a side. Eclipse lost the first heat by a length and a half, being badly ridden. Another jockey was given the mount for the next heat, which he won with a generous use of whip and spur. In the last furlong of the final heat Sir Henry made a gallant sprint which brought him within half a length of his rival as they galloped across the finish line. The pair never met again, but their triumphs continued on the courses of their respective sections of the country.

46 American Eclipse, from a painting, 1834, by Edward Troy, in the New York Historical Society

47 Sir Archy, from an engraving in Henry William Herbert, *Horse and Horsemanship in the United States*, New York, 1857



48 Kentucky Horse-breeding Farm, from a drawing in Robert Peter, *History of Fayette County, Kentucky*, Chicago, 1883

THE BLUE-GRASS REGION

The Virginians and Carolinians who pushed through the gaps in the Appalachians and settled in the Kentucky and Tennessee districts during the last quarter of the eighteenth century took good horses with them to their new homes. When they found that the pasturage of the limestone areas and the genial climate of the region were ideal for the development of good stock, they imported from England and Virginia the best types available. The files of the *Kentucky Gazette* from 1787 to 1805 show an impressive list of thoroughbred stallions to be found in the vicinity of Lexington. When wasteful methods of agriculture and decreasing soil fertility had made racing a sport too expensive for the depleted purses of Virginia gentlemen, Kentucky, settled largely by sons of the Old Dominion, became preëminent in horse breeding and the sports of the turf. As early as 1797 a Jockey Club was formed at Lexington with Kentucky horses running regularly at annual or semi-annual meets. At the same time blooded mares and stallions were being brought into the state in return for hogs, cattle, and mules driven to the eastern and southern markets. Before 1825 the blood of Diomed and Sir Archy had been crossed with native strains to produce a numerous progeny of thoroughbreds. With the creation of the Lexington Association, of which Henry Clay and John C. Breckinridge were active members, a more satisfactory course was build in 1828 and the Lexington meets became the most important in the western states. Two years later Louisville improved the Oakland course sufficiently to attract owners from other states.

49 Ophelia, the dam of Grey Eagle, from an engraving in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, March 1842

EARLY WESTERN FAVORITES

Although the Oakland Course was short-lived, it was the scene of some of the most spirited racing in the West. On the first of January, 1839, a stake for all ages, four-mile heats, closed with ten entries. To the delight of the promoters, among the entries were the Tennessee horse, Wagner, who had defeated every horse he had met on Louisiana tracks the previous season, and Grey Eagle, a Kentucky thoroughbred regarded as the king of the blue-grass region. Both were magnificent animals — Wagner a chestnut with blaze face and Grey Eagle a grey with flowing silver mane and tail. There were four starters, but it was practically a match race, since only the two favorites figured in the betting. From Louisiana, Tennessee, and Kentucky came an excited and expectant crowd. The Kentuckians backed Grey Eagle but Wagner won both heats with comparative ease. Not satisfied the Kentuckians demanded a second contest. This time their favorite was pressed so hard that he broke down in the final heat and never raced again.

50 Grey Eagle, from an engraving after the painting by Edward Troy, in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, January 1843

BOSTON

THE thoroughbred which captured the imagination of the country during the decade after 1835 was Virginia-bred, foaled in 1833 on the farm of Squire Wickham. His first race was as a three-year-old when he was named Boston, not in honor of the New England city but after the game of cards. For five years he raced in Washington, Baltimore, and on the New Jersey and Long Island tracks without meeting his equal. His victorious career was interrupted in October 1841, when he was defeated by the filly Fashion, a granddaughter of Sir Charles and a daughter of imported Trustee. Prior to this defeat he had won thirty-five out of his thirty-eight starts, all of them three- and four-mile races. Boston's career on the turf was of brief duration, but he became the sire of two great sons, Lexington and Lecompte, who made his own record seem inglorious in comparison with their brilliant performances.

51 Boston, from an engraving by Alexander L. Dick after a painting by H. De Lattre in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, December 1842

52 Entrance to the Metairie Race Course, New Orleans, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, December 18, 1867

RACING IN THE SOUTH

THROUGHOUT the southern states the sports of the turf were in high favor. At Charleston the planter aristocracy supported the efforts of the Jockey Club to present the best horses of the day on the Washington course. When the social season was at its height there was racing every other day. Few of the wealthy Louisiana planters were without their strings of thoroughbreds, which they ran at the Metairie course in New Orleans, where the heterogeneous population of the city enthusiastically gambled on the winner. It was on the Metairie Course in 1855 that Lexington made his noteworthy trial against time, setting the record of 7:19¾ for four miles, which stood for nearly a score of years.

THE GREAT LEXINGTON

THERE can be little doubt that Lexington was the greatest son of Boston and the greatest sire that this country has ever produced. On the turf he and his half brother Lecompte introduced a new era of speed. The latter brought the time for four miles down to 7 minutes 26 seconds, while Lexington clipped 6¼ seconds from that record. Foaled on Dr. Warfield's farm in Kentucky in 1850, Lexington began his racing career as a three-year-old with a series of remarkable victories. Whenever he was matched against Lecompte the tracks were crowded, for the rivalry between the followers of the two horses was keen. Lexington suffered but one defeat, in April 1854, in these meetings with his greatest rival. A year later he distanced Lecompte and retired from the track in 1856, the undisputed champion of his day. He was taken to Kentucky for breeding purposes, when it became evident that blindness was coming over him. In a score of years he sired more than six hundred colts and fillies — two hundred and thirty-six of them winners on the turf. In a single season he was the sire of a triumvirate of great racers — Asteroid, Norfolk, and Kentucky.

53 Lexington, from an engraving after a painting by L. Maurer in Henry William Herbert, *Frank Forester's Horse and Horsemanship of the United States*, New York, 1857

54 Opening Day on the Fashion Course, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, June 28, 1856

AT FASHION PARK

In certain sections of the country, particularly the eastern states, the gambling element virtually controlled racing in the years immediately preceding the Civil War. The most objectionable classes of society, with no real interest in sport, were constant patrons of the tracks and found devious ways of making a living from their racing connections. A vivid picture of conditions is contained in the following description of the opening of the new Fashion Race Course at Newton, Long Island, in June 1856. "The announcement of the race on Tuesday, June 17th, drew out a large representation from the sporting fraternity. Commencing at noon, Flushing Avenue was thronged with vehicles of all shapes and sizes, leading toward Newtown. Fancy men drove fast horses, and advanced juveniles belabored wretched and unwilling hacks. There was noise, shouting, and sometimes quarreling, as excited 'sports' met at the drinking houses on the road. It had come out in its strength, this racing world — this huge agglomeration of gambling and fraud, of weakness and wickedness, with its Atlas a blackleg. This 'fancy' profession is surrounded by an atmosphere of immorality almost as fatal as fascinating; and although, undoubtedly, many of our most honorable men interest themselves in 'sporting events,' what are their numbers compared with those we meet upon the road — men whose interest in them is the interest of 'sharps' and 'gamblers.' But moralizing is not the vein for Flushing Avenue on a race day."

A TEMPORARY ECLIPSE

Charges of commercialism, gambling, and chicanery in connection with the race tracks became so numerous that the friends of the sport were everywhere on the defensive when the Civil War broke out and disrupted the program of turf events in the South. The regular meets were likewise interrupted in the border states, notably Maryland and Kentucky, though the Lexington Association missed only one meeting, when Kirby Smith's army was camped on the track in the autumn of 1862. Within the Confederacy the owners of racing stables sold their horses to the Government at moderate prices in order to forestall the possibility of losing them under governmental requisition. It was their proud boast that much of the superiority manifested by the Confederate cavalry during the first two years of the war could be traced to the excellent saddle horses available in the southern states. This they insisted was confirmation of their contention that racing was justified by its influence in improving the breed of horses in any community where the thoroughbred was known.

55 Little Sorrel, General "Stonewall" Jackson's mount in the Civil War, from a photograph, courtesy of the Review of Reviews Corporation, New York

WAR-TIME RACING IN THE NORTH

56 William R. Travers, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Jockey Club, New York

THE northern tracks were not deserted during the war. While it is true that jockey clubs in certain districts went into bankruptcy and that the courses were consequently abandoned, there was greater interest in racing, and in many other sports, than one might expect on the part of a people engrossed in civil strife. The press was filled with editorials after 1862 reproving the citizens of the North for their willingness to make merry while the very life of the nation was at stake. Two factors partially explain the apparent indifference of large parts of the population to the seriousness of the conflict. The first was the multiplication of substantial fortunes as a result of war profits and the other was a natural desire to find some relief from the inevitable gloom which followed in the wake of casualty lists, details of carnage, and news of fresh defeats. As a result of increased incomes the wealthy few were willing to invest in racing stables, while the masses were eager to spend for the thrill of the races. In the hour of high spirits which followed Vicksburg and Gettysburg, William R. Travers, the energetic sportsman, and his associates opened a new course at Saratoga Springs, then popular as New York's fashionable summer resort. From its inception the venture was a success not only financially but also in its appeal to the society leaders of the metropolis. The excited crowds in the grandstand displayed the latest mode in feminine fashions.

57 Racing at Saratoga, from a drawing by Winslow Homer (1836–1910), in *Harper's Weekly*, August 26, 1865

LEXINGTON'S FAMOUS SONS

IMMEDIATELY after the restoration of peace, racing achieved a new popularity and dignity. Men of capital came to its support and the leaders of fashion pronounced it respectable. The crowds that thronged the tracks, however, were largely attracted by the sensational performances of the progeny of blinded Lexington. In 1865 three of his sons seemed to dominate the racing world. On the west coast was Norfolk, carrying all before him in the four-mile races at Union Park, Sacramento, and other California tracks. At Saratoga, William R. Travers had Kentucky, much in demand at the meetings on the eastern courses, while in St. Louis, Louisville, and Lexington there was none to distance Asteroid, also a gallant son of Lexington. As if to provide an appropriate setting for the brilliant work of these favorites, new race courses were projected in many communities. Mobile, scarce recovered from the ravages of war, had its Magnolia course; New Orleans was striving to regain an earlier fame as a racing center; in Memphis the Chickasaw Jockey Club actively represented the Tennesseans interested in sports of the turf; Cincinnati, Chicago, and St. Louis were building in imitation of the Saratoga course; even in Massachusetts, Springfield and Boston had succumbed to the demand for better tracks.

58 Norfolk, from a photograph in *Outing*, May 1896

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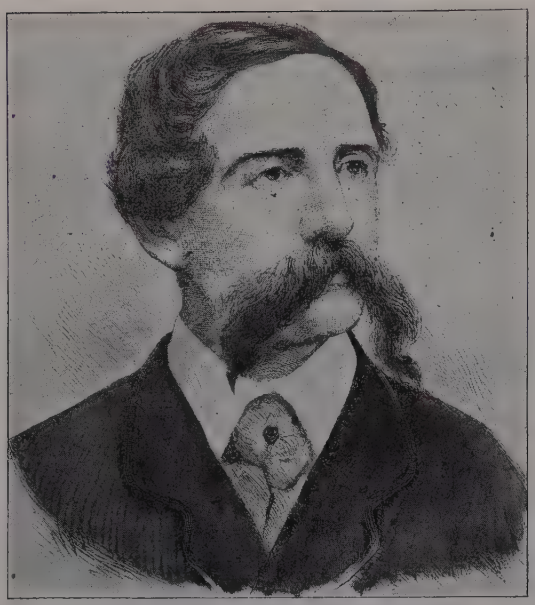


59 Leonard W. Jerome, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, October 13, 1866

THE AMERICAN JOCKEY CLUB

THE success of the Saratoga races convinced Leonard W. Jerome that a new race course in the vicinity of New York would be not only profitable but also beneficial in setting a higher standard than had previously existed in the metropolitan district. In collaboration with W. R. Travers and August Belmont he formed the American Jockey Club, which was similar to that of Newmarket in England. The Club purchased the old Bathgate estate, a beautiful tract of two hundred and thirty acres in Westchester County, which was named Jerome Park, and in 1866 built there a grandstand accommodating more than seven thousand people. The promoters barred the sale of intoxicants, discouraged the professional gambler, and endeavored to place their establishment upon a plane higher than that of the average race track. They were not disappointed, for the inauguration of the course was a great social success. General Grant was present for the opening races. The clubhouse grounds were filled with well-appointed carriages in which the wealthy residents of Murray Hill had driven out across the Harlem. Whole families came, the presence of the ladies indicating that the new venture had the approval of those who set the tone of social life in that glamorous decade which followed the somber years of war.

60 August Belmont, 1816–89, from a photograph by Gurney

AT JEROME PARK

THE opening of Jerome Park marked a new era in thoroughbred racing. The members of the American Jockey Club were men of sufficient wealth and social position to make their influence felt beyond the limits of their own course. They soon became the self-appointed board of control in the East. By sheer force of example they brought other jockey clubs into line with their own policies. It was not long before racing ended on the small Long Island tracks where a rough element had brought the sport into disrepute. Some of the lesser courses in New Jersey also found it advisable for financial reasons to abandon competition with Jerome Park. Many of Mr. Jerome's associates, like August Belmont, were owners of stables who had a deeper interest in the turf than the profit which could be made from the winning of stakes. Through their interest and efforts the meetings at Jerome Park brought the best entries from all parts of the country. There were many brilliant successors to Kentucky, winner of the Inauguration Sweepstakes. For twenty years the fame of the meetings went far and wide; then came the rumor that New York City needed the site of the park for a reservoir. Before the rumor became a fact the Jockey Club had moved to more luxurious quarters at Morris Park.

61 Spring Meet at Jerome Park, from a lithograph by H. Schile, New York, 1874

MONMOUTH PARK

62 Hurdle Race Passing the Grand Stand, Monmouth Park, from a drawing by A. R. Waud in *Harper's Weekly*, August 13, 1870

The vogue of Jerome Park might have left New Jersey without a reputable race course had it not been for the enterprise of Long Branch. This seashore resort, which was known as the summer capital of the United States after President Grant chose it as his residence during the hottest weeks of July and August, became the fashionable watering place for the leading sportsmen of the eastern states. With an eye to future business the hotel companies concluded that their clientele would appreciate good racing during the season, and they financed the construction of Monmouth Park, which opened with an impressive program in the second year of Grant's administration. Eight years later the property was acquired by a group of men more directly interested in the turf than the original promoters. Under the leadership of David D. Withers, George L. Lorillard, and James Gordon Bennett, the new owners beautified the grounds, enlarged the accommodations for spectators, constructed the famous mile-and-a-half track for sprints, and introduced continuous summer racing. There Salvator set the mile record at 1:35½, and the courageous little mare Firenze often galloped across the line a winner. In 1890 the first grandstand was replaced by a magnificent fire-proof construction. But the glory of Monmouth was past. Long Branch in the 'nineties was not the great resort of 1870. Furthermore, the New Jersey legislators were waging war against race-track gambling. In 1893 Monmouth closed its gates forever.

THE STEEPLECHASE

In Great Britain and Ireland steeplechasing had arisen from a desire to produce serviceable hunters and cavalry horses, as well as from a demand for the excitement afforded by the sport. In the United States it was at best a mediocre imitation of English cross-country racing. Beginning in the decade after the Civil War, it received the support of Leonard Jerome and several other members of the American Jockey Club. The Monmouth Park Course was also equipped for hurdle races and possessed one of the most difficult water jumps in the country. For a number of years after 1870 the riding talent for the steeplechase was entirely drawn from the British Isles or Canada. George Sutcliffe, a Yorkshireman, John Hyland, the Irish jockey, and Michael Murphy, a Nova Scotian but American trained, won fame by their splendid handling of Oysterman, Lobelia and Tammany in thrilling contests. Their exploits were not duplicated in the following decade. Though interest had not abated and the hunt clubs were anxious that cross-country races be encouraged, the type of steeplechasing on American courses was distinctly inferior. Few of the horses were properly trained; they were ridden by immature youths who handled them poorly; and the number of fatalities among the horses and of injuries to riders rapidly increased. The press began to refer to the steeplechase as "a sport dangerous alike to man and beast," while one editorial demanded that the Jockey Club "desist shocking the sensibilities of the ladies with exhibitions surpassing in brutality a Spanish bull fight." By 1885 Henry Bergh and his associates in the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals were denouncing the promoters of hurdle races. Humanitarian considerations probably hastened the decline which had already begun as a result of poor performances of riders and horses. The steeplechase survived as an occasional novelty rather than the important event it had been in the halcyon days at Jerome and Monmouth.

63 The Water Jump at Cedarhurst, from a drawing by Frederic Remington (1861–1909), in *Harper's Weekly*, September 15, 1888

64 Leamington, from a lithograph in the possession of the publishers

THE LEAMINGTONS

THE importation of Leamington in 1865 resulted in the crossing of the best English thoroughbred blood with existing American strains. In the blue-grass region of Kentucky the English horse sired some of the greatest sprinters of the decade of the 'seventies. His son, Longfellow, was acclaimed throughout the South and West at the same time that Harry Bassett, by blinded Lexington, was winning the important stakes on the eastern courses. Both horses were entered for the Monmouth Cup at two and one half miles in the July meet of 1872. An excited throng at Long Branch, expecting to see a royal struggle, were disappointed when Longfellow literally ran away from his rival. At the Saratoga meeting later in the autumn the two horses competed for the Saratoga Cup. Though Longfellow ran a gallant race, he finished a length behind Harry Bassett, having injured his foot so seriously that he was retired from the turf. His place was taken for a short time by Enquirer, ranked by many experts as the best son of Leamington. The career of Enquirer was impressive, but brief. In his three-year old form he won all the stakes for which he was entered at Lexington, Saratoga, and Monmouth Park. The following year he gave promise of a remarkable season, but an injury to his foreleg prevented him from adding to his previous victories. As a sire he was moderately successful, though none of his descendants increased the fame of his strain. While the progeny of Leamington were prominent on the turf, the gruelling four-mile races gradually disappeared. In their place came the sprint races in which the young horses were rarely started for more than six furlongs. On many eastern tracks the mile dash became popular, but the California courses clung to the longer distances. At Union Park in Sacramento and the Ocean course in San Francisco those who still demanded stamina as well as speed could see four-mile races after they had disappeared in the East except for harness horses or an occasional race such as the Bowie Stakes at Baltimore.

THE KENTUCKY DERBY

THE blue-grass region of Kentucky had become the home of the thoroughbred. Within its confines were located the greatest racing stables in the country, representing the investment of wealthy sportsmen from every section. From Jerome Park and Saratoga to Union Park and Ocean course the jockey clubs were indebted to Kentucky colts and fillies for the classic contests of the turf. Not until the building of Churchill Downs, however, did Kentucky have a race course worthy of its royal breed. In 1874, Colonel M. Lewis Clark, having studied the racing systems of England and France, founded the Louisville Jockey Club, which bought from John and Henry Churchill the ground on which the famous course was built. The program of stakes and other races — each event modeled after a similar one in England — included the Kentucky Derby for three-year-old colts and fillies, the Kentucky Oaks for fillies, and the Louisville Cup for older horses. The Derby quickly became the classic. It was first run on a glorious May day in 1875 with Aristides, a Leamington colt, setting the pace all the way and winning in a magnificent dash down the stretch. From that first race until the present no spring has passed without the running of the Derby at Churchill Downs. The list of winners is an honor roll of the three-year-olds of the passing years.

65 Clyde Van Dusen, winner of the Kentucky Derby, 1929, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

RANCOCAS

After 1870 there was some dissent from the general tendency to concentrate the important racing stables in Kentucky. On the Pacific Coast, E. J. Baldwin, better known to his friends as "Lucky," began the breeding of thoroughbreds on his San Anita Ranch, near Los Angeles, and Leland Stanford, then in the United States Senate, established a model stock farm at Palo Alto. To be near the metropolitan circuits, Pierre Lorillard, who was an influential member of the American Jockey Club, devoted some of the profits from the tobacco industry to the building of Rancocas Stables at Jobstown, New Jersey. His establishment covering some fifteen hundred acres was the most skillfully arranged and completely equipped racing stable in the nation. From its training quarters came Parole and Iroquois, both sons of Leamington, destined to win fame by their victories on both sides of the Atlantic. The colors of Rancocas were seen almost as often in the British classics as on the American turf.

66 Pierre Lorillard, from a photograph, courtesy of the Jockey Club, New York

VICTORIES ABROAD

It was Pierre Lorillard's privilege through the performances of Parole and Iroquois to demonstrate in England the high quality of the American thoroughbred. In Parole was mingled the blood of Leamington and Lexington both of whom traced back to the best English thoroughbreds. He began his career in this country by defeating Ten Broeck, the last of the great four-milers, but he showed his remarkable speed after Mr. Lorillard sent him across the Atlantic to the home of his sire. In his six-year-old form he won the Cheshire Handicaps, the City and Suburban Stakes, and as a climax the Epsom Gold Cup at a distance of two miles and a half. Brought back to the United States, he was hailed as a national hero because of his British triumphs. Before Parole retired from the turf — in fact, in the very year that he won the Westchester Cup — his half-brother, Iroquois, carried the Rancocas colors to victory in the Derby, and James R. Keene's Foxhall won the grand Prix de Paris for three-year-olds at Longchamps. Iroquois, the fourth great son of Leamington, was foaled in 1878 near Philadelphia and was sent abroad as a youngster. As a two-year-old he captured the Newmarket Plate, giving promise of winning form for the next season. Of nine starts as a three-year-old he won seven races, finishing second and third in the others. He was not only a great sprinter, but also possessed staying powers which enabled him to win consistently. Brown in color with one white pastern and a slight blaze, he had a beautiful small head and perfect shoulders, characteristics which appeared in a number of his descendants. He was admired and loved by his trainers and handlers for the gentleness of his disposition. On every occasion he carried himself with an air of distinction which set him apart from others of his strain.

67 Iroquois, from a painting, courtesy of the Jockey Club

68 The Suburban Finish, from a drawing by Thure de Thulstrup in *Harper's Weekly*, June 27, 1891

CONEY ISLAND JOCKEY CLUB

When it became apparent in 1879 that Jerome Park could not withstand for many more years the tide of population flowing toward it from the city, Leonard W. Jerome with the intuition of the successful promoter proceeded to organize the Coney Island Jockey Club. Members were recruited quietly from the ranks of the "younger set" of turfmen and a race meeting was held in June, 1879, on the Ocean Boulevard trotting track between Brooklyn and Coney Island. So great was the success of this first meet that the new club promptly incorporated under state laws "to encourage the breeding of horses." Mr. Jerome was elected president and James G. K. Lawrence, secretary. The list of charter members, including such names as August Belmont, Jr., John G. Hecksher, James R. Keene, Lawrence Kip, Pierre Lorillard, Jr., William R. Travers, and William K. Vanderbilt, indicated that the wealth and influence of New York sportsmen was behind the venture. There were rumors that Brighton Beach, where William Engemann was shrewdly capitalizing the growing popularity of Coney Island, would be the site of a course surpassing Jerome Park. Instead, the Club purchased a tract of more than one hundred acres in the old town of Sheepshead Bay. On June 19, 1880, the Coney Island Jockey Club brought thoroughbred racing back to Long Island under respectable auspices. Largely under the leadership of Mr. James Lawrence an excellent series of stakes and handicap races was established. The Suburban Handicap at a mile and a quarter, for years the greatest racing event in the country, was inaugurated in 1884. Four years later the Futurity, a rich stake for two-year-olds, was run. In 1889 came the Realization Stake for three-year-olds. The richness of these stakes attracted the best horses from all parts of the nation and made Sheepshead Bay the most important of the eastern tracks.

THREE GENERATIONS OF CHAMPIONS

69 Hanover, from a painting, courtesy of the Jockey Club, New York

During the decade of the 'eighties three horses in whom the blood of Lexington was strong — Hindoo, Hanover and Hamburg — seemed to dominate the turf in the East. Hindoo began as a sensational two-year-old in 1880, winning seven of his nine races. The following season he lost only two of his twenty starts and took the choice stakes for three-year-olds at Lexington, Monmouth Park, Sheepshead Bay, and Saratoga. He retired as a four-year-old, becoming the sire of Hanover, who was hailed as the greatest horse of his generation. This son of Hindoo may not have been superior to his sire, but he was fast enough to earn a large sum for his owners, Philip and Michael Dwyer. In the four years of his turf career he started fifty times, winning thirty-two races, finishing second thirteen times, third three times, and going unplaced only twice. His total winnings were in excess of one hundred and twenty thousand, nine hundred dollars in a day when stakes were not as large as at present. A list of the races which he won is but a duplicate of the great events on the racing programs of the eastern and mid-western tracks. Like his sire, Hanover possessed the ability to transmit his speed to his progeny. Three of his get were illustrious: Hamburg, Yankee and Hamburg Belle. Hamburg was the finest of them all. Racing under almost crushing handicaps he won the Great Trial, Futurity, and Great Eastern Handicap at Sheepshead Bay, and the Flash and Grand Union Hotel at Saratoga in his two-year-old form. Defeated for the Belmont Stakes as a three-year-old, he came back to win a great victory in the Realization Stakes in 1898. His last victory closing his turf career was the winning of the Brighton Cup.

WASHINGTON PARK

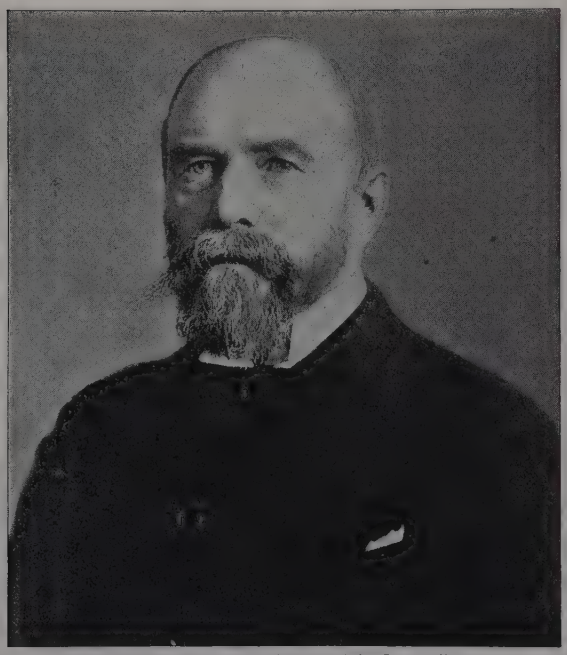
70 Washington Park Race Track, Chicago, from a drawing by J. W. Taylor in *Harper's Weekly*, August 4, 1888

CHICAGO rather tardily followed the example set by the American and Coney Island jockey clubs. For fifteen years after the Civil War its race tracks were of doubtful repute because of the professional element in control. Not until 1884 did a group conspicuous in the business and social life of the city attempt to remedy the situation. With the formation of the Washington Park Jockey Club a new era of respectability was begun. The Club constructed a clubhouse of palatial proportions and built a track of modern design which equaled the best courses in the East. At its opening race meeting the feature event was the running of the American Derby at a mile and a half, a race which quickly became popular with owners from every section of the nation. Its repetition in later years brought horses from California, Missouri, Louisiana, Kentucky, and New York to the Washington Park track.

NEW COURSES IN THE EAST

DURING the decade after 1885 thoroughbred racing enjoyed an era of unprecedented prosperity. The great stables were sending horses of speed and stamina to the meets throughout the country, stakes were increasing in size, and capital was being invested lavishly in new clubhouses and courses. In 1885 Philip and Michael Dwyer, sponsors of the Brooklyn Jockey Club, leased the old Prospect Park Fair Grounds and put the well-known trotting track in shape for running races. Subsequently they built a new course at Gravesend, which remained the home of the club until the track was closed in 1912. The project of the Dwyers was surpassed by the New York Jockey Club, organized in 1888 to perpetuate the principles of the American Jockey Club. Not far from Jerome Park the leaders of the new association purchased three hundred and thirty acres which they named Morris Park for John A. Morris. There they built an oval and the famous straightaway, which because of its slight descent was popularly known as the toboggan. Most of the classic events from Jerome Park, including the Withers and Belmont Stakes, were transferred to Morris Park in 1890, and the Metropolitan Handicap was established the following year. In 1895 the New York Jockey Club abandoned its annual meetings, but the Westchester Racing Association leased the course and continued the important events there for the next decade, when it moved to Belmont Park.

71 The Opening of the Racing Season at the Brooklyn Jockey Club, from a drawing by F. Durkin in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, May 25, 1889



72 James R. Keene, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THE CENTRALIZATION OF CONTROL

Not until 1891 was there any concerted effort on the part of those interested in racing to set up a system of control for the sport. Each club governed its race meetings as it saw fit, except that in the New York district there was a tendency to recognize the rules of the American Jockey Club and the procedure at Jerome Park. At the suggestion of Pierre Lorillard, who felt that jockeys and trainers should be licensed and that forfeit lists should be enforced, a Board of Control was organized on February 16, 1891, with David D. Withers, J. G. K. Lawrence, Philip J. Dwyer, John A. Morris, Alexander J. Cassatt, John Hunter and James Galway as members. Two years later James R. Keene launched a vigorous protest because the Board was in the hands of the owners of race courses rather than the representatives of the leading stables of the country. As a result of this criticism the control of thoroughbred racing was placed in the hands of a Jockey Club of fifty members, seven of whom were designated as stewards to hear cases on appeal. The Jockey Club, representing the great racing interests of the eastern states, was given authority to license trainers and jockeys, to appoint officials, to revise the rules of racing, and to arrange dates of meetings on the various courses. Through its stewards it established reciprocal relations with western clubs and with numerous foreign racing associations.

STRIVING FOR SPEED

The last half century on the American turf has been characterized by an incessant effort to secure speed in the shorter distances. Gone are the days of three- and four-mile races. The first noted miler was Alarm, by imported Eclipse, who established a record of 1:42¾ in 1871. Five years later Ten Broeck so completely outclassed horses racing in the West that owners would not start against him. He lowered the mark to 1:39¾ in a race against time. There it stood until Salvator in 1890 brought the crowd to its feet by doing the straight mile at Monmouth Park in the remarkable time of 1:35½. His performance was not bettered for twenty-eight years, though everything possible was done to make the courses faster. Tracks were no longer deep with sand, but were scraped, combed, and rolled, with the turns carefully graded. When Roamer established the mile record of 1:34⅘ at Saratoga in 1918, he ran under conditions decidedly more favorable to speed than existed in the days of his great predecessor, Ten Broeck, some forty years earlier.

One of the factors responsible for a faster pace in the sprints was the change which came over American jockeyship in the decade of the 'nineties, when "Snapper" Garrison and Tod Sloan introduced the modern jockey seat with short stirrups and crouching posture of the rider, which seemed to offer less air resistance than the erect body and comparatively straight knees of the English jockeys. The Americans also considerably modified, especially in the sprints, the English jockey's method of watching, waiting for, and racing against the other entries. From the days of Garrison and Sloan to those of Sande and Fator "end to end" racing with its emphasis on speed all the way has characterized the American method.

73 Salvator, from a photograph by Gramstorff Bros., Malden, of the painting by Henry Stull

THE ATTACK ON GAMBLING

ALTHOUGH at the opening of the twentieth century the laws of every state in the Union forbade race-track gambling, they were drafted in a few instances, notably in New York and Maryland, in such fashion as virtually to protect the bookmaker and pool seller. So brazen had the gambling fraternity become on the metropolitan tracks that the Jockey Club was severely censured for its failure to take drastic action. Charges were openly made in newspapers and popular magazines that thoroughbred racing existed only for the benefit of the professional gamblers, acting as a sort of glorious roulette wheel for their speculative ventures. The claim that the turf was an instrumentality for improving the breed of horses met with ridicule from those who insisted that the killing speed in the short dashes run by two-year-olds was a deterrent to the development of better stock. Stamina, they said, was sacrificed for killing speed at the dictates of a clique interested neither in wholesome sport nor in the improvement of the thoroughbred, but only in the profit-taking possibilities of a gambling business. After 1905 the popular clamor against gambling and commercialism grew apace, with the result that three years later Governor Hughes, against considerable political pressure, undertook a successful campaign to persuade the New York Legislature to enact severe laws against bookmaking and pool selling. For two years after this legislative action, in 1911 and 1912, the tracks in the metropolitan district were deserted and protests were loud from the racing fraternity charging violation of its rights.

Race Track Infamy;

OR,

Do Gamblers Own New York State?

By

ANTHONY COMSTOCK

A Scathing Exposure of How the Constitution of New York State is Flagrantly Violated by Common Gamblers

1904
PUBLISHED BY THE AUTHOR
140-142 NASSAU STREET
NEW YORK

74 Attack on Race-Track Gambling, from a pamphlet in the New York Public Library

THE JOCKEY CLUB'S DEFENSE

WHEN the anti-gambling crusade became formidable, the Jockey Club endeavored to dramatize its interest in improving the breed of horses for the owners of ordinary stock. In May 1906, the club created a breeding bureau to supervise its plan of coöperating with the farmers of New York state in an effort to diffuse more widely the blood of the thoroughbred. Between thirty and forty stallions were sent into various counties at a nominal service charge. To insure the general acceptance of their generous offer August Belmont and his associates established prizes to be awarded at county fairs to owners of the best colts and fillies sired by the Jockey Club's stallions. Thus the club signally announced its devotion to the principle which, in theory at any rate, was the reason for its existence. Neither did it hesitate to emphasize the fact that five per cent of the profits from racing in New York went into the coffers of the county fair associations for premiums and prizes in connection with the display of well-bred horses. But these good works could not stay the popular wrath against the unholy alliance between racing and gambling. The triumph of the reformers during the administration of Governor Hughes, however, was temporary for in 1912 the friends of racing, by means of energetic lobbying at Albany, secured a modification of the laws governing race-track practices which restored the old system to an extent satisfactory to the men who really made racing pay. Once more the tracks were crowded.

75 August Belmont, Jr., from a photograph by Brown Bros.

76 Down the Toboggan at Morris Park, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

MODERN RACING PARKS

For a decade after 1895 the Westchester Racing Association leased Morris Park for its spring and autumn meetings. Then difficulties over the terms of the lease and the insistent demands of the Long Island contingent of the Association caused August Belmont and James R. Keene to purchase a tract of six hundred and fifty acres in Queens County. On May 4, 1905, the new course was opened with a gala program and Belmont Park took its place as one of the finest racing properties in the country. From the commodious grandstand nine thousand spectators could see the mile and a half oval circuit and the straight course of seven furlongs. The beauty of the saddling paddock was a greater attraction than the excitement of the betting booths at the opening meetings. Belmont soon became the home of the greatest classics for two-year-olds and three-year-olds. To it were transferred such stakes as the Withers, Belmont, Realization, Futurity, Metropolitan, and the Suburban Handicap. A disastrous fire damaged the property in 1917, but it was promptly enlarged into a magnificent setting for the best thoroughbred racing in America. Belmont Park and three other tracks within the metropolitan district make New York the Mecca of the racing enthusiast. On Long Island are the Aqueduct, originally the home of the Queens County Jockey Club, and the Jamaica track, controlled by the Metropolitan Jockey Club, while at Yonkers is James Butler's Empire City course, which has enjoyed a merited success since 1907. While New York is preëminent it does not have a monopoly of the best racing in the country. Maryland with its courses at Havre de Grace, Laurel, and Pimlico, and Kentucky with Latonia and Churchhill Downs also have their historic turf events. Every year as May rolls around a multitude from every corner of the nation pours into the blue-grass region of Kentucky, for May is the month of the running of the Derby at Churchill Downs. During the last ten years the greatest three-year-olds in the country have been entered for this classic and its winners from the days of Aristides, Vagrant and Hindoo to the time of Exterminator, Morvich and Zev have made history on the American turf.

77 Havre de Grace Race Track, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

78 Aqueduct Track, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MAN O' WAR

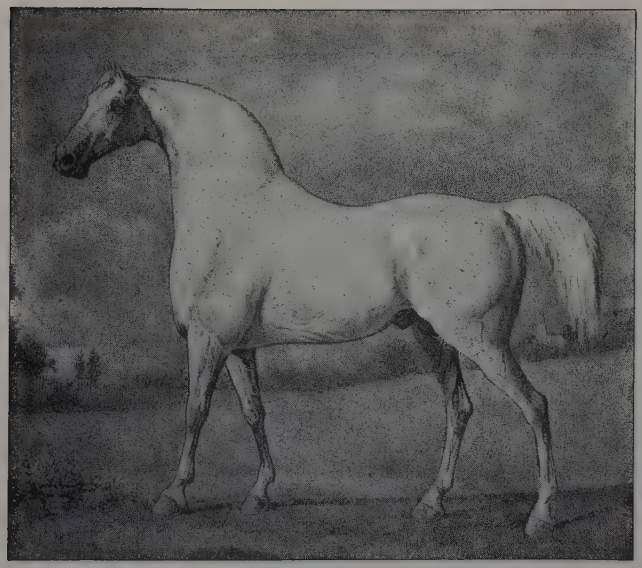
79 Man o' War, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THERE have been so many superior racers in the last quarter century that it is impossible to attribute supremacy to any one. Many competent horsemen, however, believe that Man O' War is the greatest thoroughbred ever produced in this country. Certainly he has been one of the most successful in intriguing the interest of those who seldom witness the pageantry of the turf. Foaled at the Belmont farm in Kentucky in 1917, Man O' War competed in eleven races as a two-year-old. He lost one as a result of poor riding on the part of the jockey. In his three-year-old form he was unbeatable, capturing every stake for which he was entered. While it has frequently been stated that he ran against inferior contenders, the fact remains that in 1920 he set the record for both the $1\frac{3}{8}$ and $1\frac{5}{8}$ mile circuits. With rare judgment his owner retired him from the turf at the end of his second season, confident that he would sire generations of winners, if he was not raced out before his retirement. That confidence was not misplaced. In 1926 with only three crops of his get on the tracks Man O' War had sent a dozen racers to the starting post, who had earned three hundred and sixty-five thousand dollars in stakes. His winning descendants were American Flag, Mars, Dress Parade, Scapa Flow, and, greatest of all, Crusader. His career should help to determine whether a horse that has never been overtaxed and is in full possession of his youth and vigor makes a greater sire than a great horse that has been raced out.

THE ARMY REMOUNT

FOR more than seventy years prior to the beginning of the World War the governments of continental Europe had maintained thoroughbred studs for the production of military horses. Previous experimentation had convinced them that the horse with the greatest proportion of thoroughbred blood was apt to be the most efficient in military service. Within two years after the outbreak of the great war British and French specialists demonstrated that, independent of casualties, the life of a thoroughbred under the extraordinary conditions of wartime was longer than that of any other type and almost twice as long as that of the ordinary trotter. Before 1913 the United States had done little to provide an adequate supply of army remounts of the proper type. Then a Congressional appropriation enabled the Bureau of Animal Industry to experiment with some forty stallions — Morgans, standard trotters and thoroughbreds — in Vermont, New Hampshire, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Through arrangement with the owners of sound, square-trotting mares, the government took an option on the colts and fillies sired, purchasing as two-year-olds those that met the army specifications. Despite decreasing Congressional appropriations this tentative venture greatly increased the interest of horsemen in breeding army remounts. Since the war governmental appropriations have been handled through the Remount Service of the United States Army, which has consistently stressed the value of thoroughbred blood in the military horse whether he is used as a trooper's mount, in the artillery, or as part of the transport service. It is hoped that the fame of the American artillery horse, earned on the battlefields of France, may be equaled by that of the cavalry horse bred in the United States. In the realization of this hope the turf can play a vital part by selecting those thoroughbreds worthy to perpetuate their strain, a function which intelligent horsemen have long insisted is the chief justification for the sport of racing as now conducted.

80 An Army officer demonstrating jumping with a cavalry remount, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, Washington



81 Mambrino, from an engraving by George T. Stubbs, London, 1794

THE FOUNDATION SIRES OF AMERICAN TROTTERS

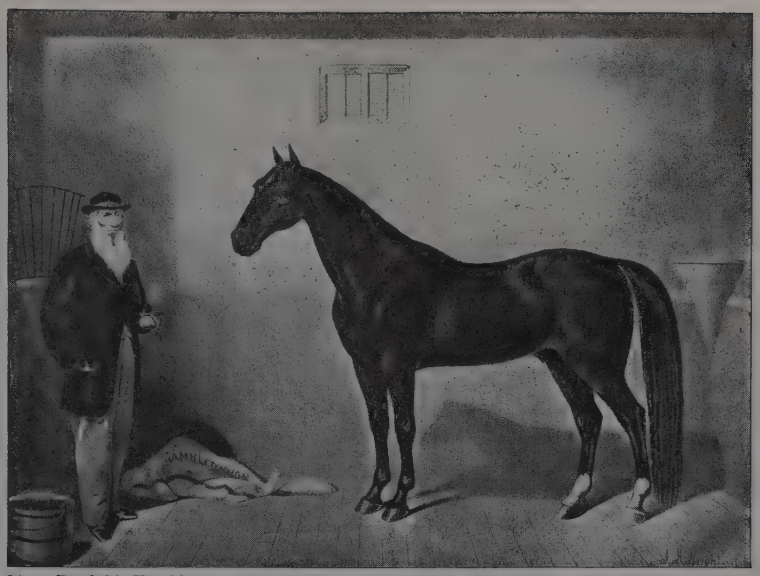
It was the blood of the English thoroughbred which gave speed and stamina to the light-harness horse in America. The numerous trotters, driven to vehicles of varying degrees of clumsiness throughout New England and other northern states at the close of the eighteenth century, developed no sensational speed in their trial heats or occasional brushes on the road. Despite some legendary accounts of impressive performances, they were generally mediocre horses in need of the quickening impulses of a warmer strain. That infusion of new blood came largely from two sources — Messenger and Justin Morgan, both of whom traced back to the English thoroughbred. In 1788 Messenger, whose sire was Mambrino, a lofty gray horse of noble appearance, was brought to Philadelphia to improve the running blood of the country. For twenty years he remained an outstanding representative of the better English strains which were improving standards in this country. Although many of his progeny were running horses of superior ability, the second generation of his descendants manifested a strong tendency to trot. This was particularly true of the colts and fillies sired by Messenger's son, Bishop's Hambletonian. When Messenger died at Oyster Bay in 1808 he was buried with military honors by horsemen who already realized what his contribution had been to the American trotter. Important in the development of the Hambletonians was the Norfolk trotter, Bellfounder, who was imported into Boston in 1823 at the time when New Englanders were becoming interested in light-harness racing. His offspring inherited the spirit and vigor for which he was noted. Justin Morgan, founder of another important strain in light-harness horses, was foaled at West Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1787. His sire, True Briton, was a thoroughbred, who, if we may rely upon the legend, was captured from a British officer during the Revolutionary War. As a two-year-old colt, Justin Morgan was taken to Randolph, Vermont, by his poverty-stricken owner who sold him to a local farmer for ordinary farm work. The strength demanded of draught horses was his and he apparently suffered little from his arduous labors in a frontier community. Although he did not develop into a fast trotter, he was full of style and possessed the ability to perpetuate his characteristics. From Vermont his family spread into all parts of the nation, carrying, wherever the blood appeared, fine form and endurance as well as speed. In later years it was a strain of natural trotters welcomed by horsemen who desired to breed for bottom. The Morgan fame was quite as great off the turf as in the racing centers, though it was challenged by the descendants of Grand Bashaw, an imported Arabian.

82 Bellfounder, from a drawing after the painting by Fisher, in the *Sports of the Times*, New York, March 19, 1910

83 Justin Morgan, from a drawing in D. C. Linsley, *Morgan Horses*, New York, 1857

THE EARLY HAMBLETONIANS

In his later years Messenger became the sire of a bay colt, foaled in 1806, known as Mambrino, a natural but untrained trotter. Mambrino's greatest son, born in 1823, was the Abdallah listed as No. 1 in the *Trotting Stud Book*. A closely inbred horse, he inherited the fine trotting quality of Messenger, which by this generation was becoming pronounced. In 1849 his blood was crossed with that of the Charles Kent mare, a daughter of Bellfounder. The result of this fusion of the Messenger blood with that of the Norfolk trotter was a bay colt destined to become the greatest of all the Hambletonian progenitors of harness horses. He was known in the registers as Rysdyk's Hambletonian. Purchased with his dam for one hundred and twenty-four dollars by William M. Rysdyk of Goshen, New York, he developed into one of the most valuable stallions of his day. While his speed was not phenomenal, his descendants in the second generation were recognized for their time records as well as their stamina. In his career of twenty-seven years he was the sire of more than twelve hundred foals, the greatest of them being Dexter, who was acclaimed in the decade of the 'sixties as "King of the Turf."

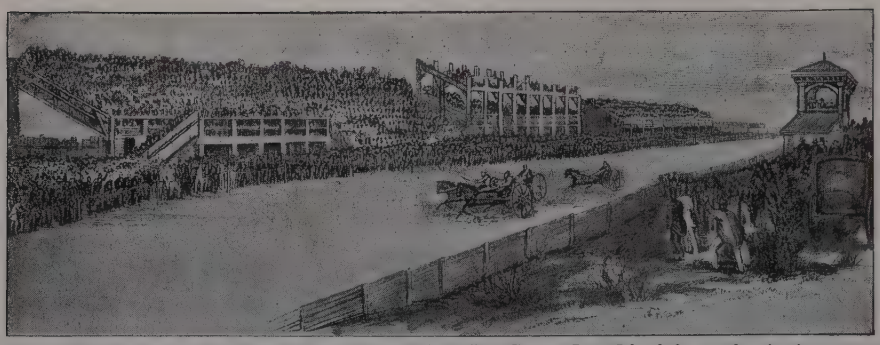


84 Rysdyk's Hambletonian, from a lithograph after a painting by James Henry Wright, 1865, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York

DEVELOPING THE SPEED OF THE TROTTER

With the improvement in roads and the perfection of the light wagon or carriage, interest in the speed of the trotter perceptibly increased. Driving in the first quarter of the nineteenth century became something more than a mere means of transportation. Behind a fast harness horse it was a source of genuine enjoyment. The origin of the trotting track is difficult to discover. Apparently there had been a few such courses in use in the eighteenth century, but most of the contests occurred on the roads. Many an exciting tale was told of these remarkable encounters, for in the telling it was as difficult to keep down the speed of the horses, as it was to measure the distance actually trotted. One such story names a horse Yankee as the winner of a mile race in 2:50 on a track at Harlem, New York, in 1806. This cannot be confirmed from the records, but the performance of Boston Blue at Jamaica, Long Island, seems to be authentic. An amiable argument at the Jockey Club dinner in New York in 1818 caused several gentlemen to wager that a horse could trot a mile in less than three minutes under saddle. They named Boston Blue to make the time test and, as the old record says, he "won cleverly." Three years later Topgallant, then thirteen years old, set the mark at 2:46¾ where it remained until 1838, when Edwin Forrest trotted the distance in 2:36½. These early trials of speed were generally staged on the Jamaica track or the Union course.

85 Trotting Match on Union Course, Long Island, from a drawing by J. H. Goater in *The Illustrated American News*, October 4, 1851



86 Trotting Race at the Great National Horse Fair, Eclipse Course, Long Island, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, November 6, 1858

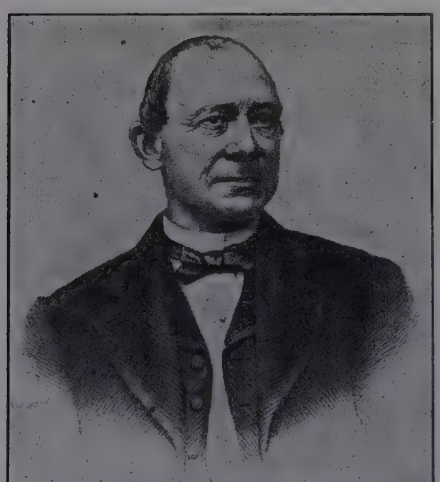
FORERUNNERS OF THE GRAND CIRCUIT

THE westward migration of the early decades of the nineteenth century, especially that part which originated in New England and eastern New York, spread widely the fame of the light harness horse. At the same time the manifestations of speed in the descendants of imported Messenger and Justin Morgan established the racing of the trotter on a firm foundation. Associations were organized to substitute a more orderly system of meetings for the sporadic contests which marked the period prior to 1820. Boston had a society as early as 1817, but the New York Trotting Club, formed in 1825, established the first successful trotting course near the old Jamaica turnpike on Long Island. Three years later the Hunting Park Association at Philadelphia announced its intention of encouraging "the breed of fine horses especially that most valuable one known as the trotter." On its splendid track in 1828 Topgallant trotted his famous endurance race of four heats, four miles each, in forty-five minutes and forty-four seconds. In the next decade Long Island alone had three good tracks besides the Union Course, while Harlem Park and the Beacon Course at Hoboken were within easy distance of New York City. After 1840 the Cambridge Course at Boston and the Eagle Course at Trenton attracted some of the best exhibitions of harness racing, while Rochester, Buffalo, Cleveland, and Cincinnati were visited by the veteran campaigners. Nowhere were purses richer than at the Centreville and Eclipse Courses on Long Island.

87 Race at the United States Agricultural Fair, 1856, from a lithograph by Duval & Co., Philadelphia, 1856

HIRAM WASHINGTON WOODRUFF, 1817–1867

THE story of Hiram Woodruff's career is virtually a history of the American trotting turf during his lifetime. As a boy on his father's farm in New Jersey he learned to love good road horses. One of the thrilling moments of his youth was the day that his uncle, George Woodruff, granted him permission to exercise the great Topgallant, then at the height of his fame. From his uncle George, Hiram gained a thorough knowledge of horses and horsemanship, which he began to apply at the age of fourteen, when he secured his first mount. For thirty-six years he trained and rode trotters, handling some of the best in the country. At the beginning of his career most of the trotting races were under saddle, but he witnessed the growing popularity of harness racing, either to high-wheeled sulky or light wagon. At the time of his death there were few skilled riders of fast trotters in the nation. Woodruff was not merely a clever driver. He was deeply interested in the alleged purpose of all racing associations — namely, the improvement of the breeds of horses. With this in mind he devoted much of his time to studying the problem of the proper crossing of strains. Though he loved the pageantry of the turf and the performance of the champion, he never forgot that the great objective was to bring the stock of the country up to the highest standard.



88 Hiram Woodruff, from a drawing after a photograph, in Hiram Woodruff, *The Trotting Horse of America*, New York, 1871

IN THE DAYS OF LADY SUFFOLK

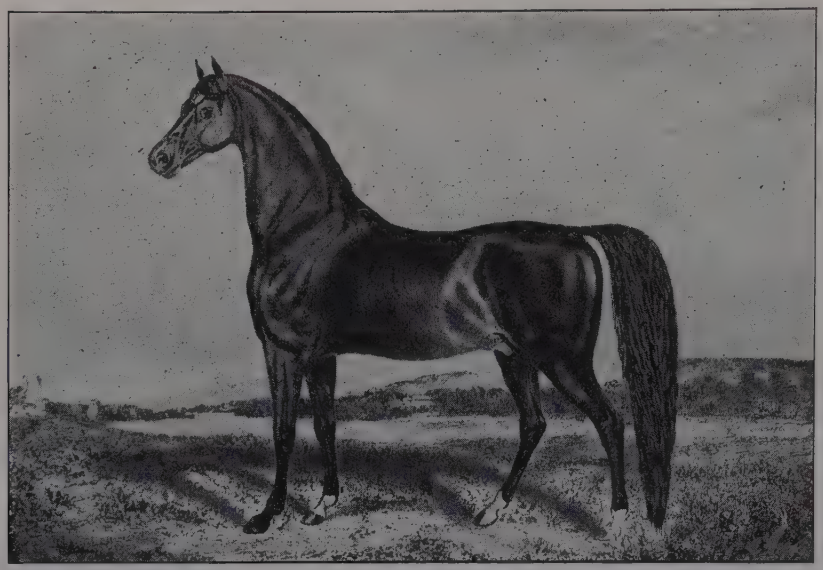
89 Lady Suffolk, from a drawing in John H. Wallace, *Wallace's American Stud-Book*, New York, 1867

In 1833 there was foaled at Smithtown, Suffolk County, New York, a gray filly in whom the Messenger blood was strong. She developed into a raw-boned, slab-sided mare, deep in the chest and muscular in the arms and quarters. Known as Lady Suffolk, she made her first appearance on the track in 1838, winning a purse of eleven dollars. For the next fifteen years she campaigned continuously on eastern courses, occasionally being taken as far west as Cincinnati and Saint Louis. Everywhere she appeared, spectators were impressed not only by her speed, but also by her stamina and courage. Her chief rivals, Dutchman, Americus, and Lady Moscow defeated her occasionally, but none could endure the gruelling tests to which the little gray mare was subjected. In 1845 on the Beacon Course at Hoboken she trotted a mile under saddle in 2:29½, which was the first time the mark of 2:30 was lowered. When she retired from the turf in 1853, a year before her death, Lady Suffolk had won 88 of the 138 races in which she started. The magnitude of her performance becomes apparent when one considers that each race involved from three to five heats, most of them over a four-mile course. One wonders what she would have accomplished with modern equipment on the present-day track, under the direction of more skillful horsemen than any who handled her in her lifetime.

FLORA TEMPLE

During the last year that Lady Suffolk appeared upon the turf the first indications of unusual speed were shown by a spirited bay mare called Flora Temple. Foaled in 1845 near Utica, New York, she had spent the first years of her life in a livery stable. So little was thought of her that she was sold when four years old for thirteen dollars. Then a shrewd horseman of Dutchess County purchased her from a passing drover and got his price for her in the New York market. She was soon known on the suburban roads as a trotter of more than ordinary promise. In 1853 she raced from the opening of the season in May at Philadelphia to its closing in December at Louisville, winning a majority of her races. The following year she began a series of victories which extended over a period of six years with few interruptions. Wherever she appeared she was accorded a royal welcome by the spectators, and her performances stimulated interest in trotting throughout the south and west. It was on the newly constructed course at Kalamazoo, Michigan, in 1859 that she placed the mile record at 2:19¾, where it stood for the next eight years until Dexter brought it lower. Like her great predecessor Lady Suffolk, Flora Temple did nothing to perpetuate her line. She died at the age of thirty-two in 1877, when her fame had been eclipsed by the performance of her successors.

90 Two-Mile Trotting Race between Flora Temple and George M. Patchen, from a drawing in *The New York Illustrated News*, June 23, 1860



91 Ethan Allen, from an engraving in John H. Wallace, *Wallace's American Stud-Book*, New York, 1867

THE MORGANS

Out of Vermont and other New England states came a steady stream of worthy representatives of the Morgan strain, who did much to strengthen the trotting blood of the country. Through Black Hawk, a grandson of Justin Morgan, the founder of the family, the type became prominent among the horses of the Western Reserve district of Ohio, whence it spread throughout the old northwest. Black Hawk's greatest son was Ethan Allen, foaled in 1849. Beautiful in form, with all the best qualities and few of the defects of the Morgans, he became a popular favorite. In his prime he defeated George M. Patchen, the conqueror of Flora Temple, and that remarkable son of Rysdyk's Hambletonian, Dexter. His victory over Dexter must be discounted, however, because it was won with the aid of a running mate. As a sire Ethan Allen was the equal of the best of the Morgans. Mated to the famous pacer Pocahontas, he became the sire of another Pocahontas, a fast trotter who unfortunately died without issue. In his later years Ethan Allen carried the Morgan strain into Kansas, where he died in 1876.

THE SUPREMACY OF DEXTER

The abnormal conditions of wartime seriously interfered with the breeding and training of the trotting horse, and disrupted activities on the turf in certain sections. Kentucky owners and trainers reported that their stallions and mares were pressed into the service of the government, their equipment damaged or destroyed by the contending forces, and their organizations collapsing for want of financial support. Farther north, where the presence of the conflict was less evident, there was a different situation. Though public interest had been diverted into other channels, the urban courses remained active. Chicago built a new driving park. In the East both the old Union course and the newer Fashion track were visited by crowds eager to see George M. Patchen, General Butler and Dexter. It was on the Fashion course in 1865 that Dexter lowered Flora Temple's record of 2:19¾. This son of Rysdyk's Hambletonian, a brown gelding foaled in 1858, was the fleetest trotter of his day whether he was under saddle or in harness. At Buffalo in 1867 his clever driver, Budd Doble, sent him on to break the record, which he did by trotting the mile in 2:17¼. This achievement marked his passing from the turf, for he attracted the attention of Robert Bonner who added him to his string of speedy driving horses. For twenty years he remained in Bonner's stable, a champion of the road and a delight to all those who had the opportunity to drive him.

92 Dexter, from an engraving in John H. Wallace, *Wallace's American Stud-Book*, New York, 1867

THE HEYDAY OF THE TROTTER

93 Trotting Match at the Buffalo Driving Park, August 12, 1869, from a drawing by J. P. Hoffman in *Harper's Weekly*, September 4, 1869

THE span of Dexter's lifetime marked an important era in the development of American trotting. It had become a national sport, not only in the sense that it was popular in all parts of the nation but also in view of the fact that nowhere else in the world had light-harness racing received such widespread recognition. Its influence was much more pervasive than that of thoroughbred racing, for the trotting track as an invariable accompaniment of the agricultural fair entered every county in the country. By 1870 there were few towns of more than five thousand population that could not boast of some facilities for light-harness racing. The Buffalo Driving Park, opened in 1866, where Dexter set the mark of 2:17¼, was the first course to offer valuable premiums. As a result the best horses in the United States appeared there and the city soon became the national trotting capital. Equally generous with purses to encourage good meetings were the organizations which sponsored Hampden Park at Springfield, Massachusetts, and the Cleveland and Utica tracks. These four courses, together with Hartford, Rochester, and Poughkeepsie, became the nucleus of the Grand Trotting Circuit in 1875. Five years earlier the National Trotting Association had been formed to perform for light-harness racing the functions of the Jockey Club in connection with the running track. As the number of courses grew, a secession from the ranks of the national organization resulted in the formation of the American Trotting Association with supervision over western circuits. At the opening of the twentieth century the two groups, working harmoniously, controlled more than eight hundred tracks.

CAMPAIGNING AGAINST TIME

DURING the two decades after 1870 much of the racing on the Grand Circuit and elsewhere was motivated by a desire to lower the record rather than by any intense rivalry between the owners of fast trotters. An exception may be the case of Goldsmith Maid and American Girl, whose contests were always close; yet the driver of each horse was eager to bring the mark as far below Dexter's 2:17¼ as possible. The result of this campaigning against time was a steady increase in the number of horses with records of 2:20 or better. Goldsmith Maid's best performance was on the Mystic Park track at Boston in 1874, when she covered the distance in two minutes and fourteen seconds. She retained her crown until 1878, surrendering it that year to Rarus, a bay gelding, whose time was one-half second better than the previous mark. The following year General Grant was entertained on his return from his world tour by watching St. Julien establish a new record of 2:12¾. With the endeavor to glorify speed came the development of exhibition races, known as hippodroming. The results were usually prearranged, and were designed by promoters for the purpose of amassing profits by letting the public see its favorite overcome all competition. The practice was denounced by many horsemen, like Robert Bonner, who were anxious to free the trotting turf from every charge of commercialism.

94 Goldsmith Maid and American Girl, from an engraving in *Every Horse Owner's Encyclopedia*, Philadelphia, 1872

95 Robert Bonner's Training Establishment, from a drawing in *The Illustrated Sporting and Dramatic News*, August 23, 1884

THE WORK OF ROBERT BONNER

No lover of the light-harness horse did more for the development of trotting in the United States than Robert Bonner. Born in Londonderry, Ireland, in 1824, he made a fortune in this country as the publisher of the New York *Ledger*. Shortly before the Civil War he felt financially able to satisfy his desire to own a stable of good horses. From 1856 until his death more than forty years later he was a consistent champion of everything calculated to improve the reputation of the turf. An inveterate foe of gambling, he was also opposed to those who regarded light-harness racing as a profitable business rather than a pleasant sport. In a day of rampant commercialism he struggled valiantly to preserve the amateur spirit. He practiced what he preached. Though he spent more than half a million in acquiring a superb group of fast trotters, it does not appear that he ever took a dollar in premiums, prizes, or purses. He always regarded the trotting turf as an adjunct to road driving. It offered him an opportunity to test the speed of his trotters, but he cared less for the spectacle than for the sport of driving in a friendly brush with one of his neighbors. To the Bonner stable at Tarrytown came eventually most of the greatest in the trotting world. He retired Dexter from the turf in 1867 and subsequently acquired the champions, Rarus, Maud S. and Sunol. Judged by the preference of the race-going public, Maud S. led all the others. Her first public appearance was on the half-mile track at Cincinnati in 1878 when she was in her fourth year. Within a few days she was purchased by William H. Vanderbilt for driving on the road, but in 1880 she was trained for the turf, where she maintained her supremacy for five years. In competition with Jay-Eye-See she lowered the mile record several times, finally setting it in 1885 at 2:08¾, where it remained for six years until another of Mr. Bonner's mares, Sunol, lowered it to 2:08¼.

96 Maud S., from an engraving after a painting by A. J. Schultz, in Walter T. Chester, *Chester's Complete Trotting and Pacing Record*, New York, 1884

MECHANICAL AIDS TO SPEED

97 Trotting Match, from a drawing by P. Frenzeny in *Harper's Weekly*, August 20, 1881

SUNOL was the last champion to draw the high-wheeled sulky. In 1892 Edward Geers, the famous reinsman, decided that the ball-bearing axle and the pneumatic tire, which had been introduced with the bicycle, could be successfully applied to the sulky. Accordingly, tests were made at Detroit which convinced Geers and others that the bicycle sulky with a twenty-eight inch wheel was several seconds faster than the old high-wheeled vehicle. The first public trial was made in July, 1892, in a race at Worcester, Massachusetts, and the innovation was pronounced a success. That autumn the veteran driver, Budd Doble, sent Nancy Hanks over the mile to a record of 2:04 at Terre Haute, Indiana. Improvements were made at the same time in the trotting tracks. Scientific calculations brought about grading on the curves which would result in a minimum loss of time, and the surface of the tracks with its underlayer of turf was prepared as far as possible to promote speed. The record was lowered in the 'nineties as a result of these innovations and improvements, not because of the greater speed of the champions, for neither Nancy Hanks nor Alix, who succeeded her, could equal the mark of Maud S., when hitched to the high-wheeled sulky which the great mare had pulled. Many a reinsman was convinced that Maud S. under modern racing conditions would have been invincible.

98 Nancy Hanks, from the painting by Gean Smith, courtesy of *Outing*

ACHIEVING THE TWO MINUTE MILE

THE opening years of the twentieth century were marked by almost frenzied efforts to establish the record at two minutes. There was much keen competition between The Abbot and Cresceus, though neither of them trotted the distance in less than 2:02¼. There the record stood when Lou Dillon, driven by the owner, C. K. G. Billings, lowered the mark to 1:58½ at Memphis, Tennessee, on October 24, 1903. Her great rival of the period, Major Delmar, could not better the record of the mare, and it stood until 1912, when the gelding Uhlan was timed at 1:58. A decade later Peter Manning, trotting against time, set the present mark of 1:56¾ over the same track on which Lou Dillon had appeared. There can be little doubt that the present champion is superior in speed to the earlier record holders, for no mere technical improvement in equipment will account for the difference in their performances.

99 Lou Dillon, from a photograph by Schreiber & Son, Philadelphia. © 1903

100 Pocahontas, from an engraving in John H. Wallace, *Wallace's American Stud-Book*, New York, 1867

THE PACERS

THE harness racing horse has two gaits, the trot and the pace, which are in a sense connecting links between a walk and a gallop. Either may take the place of the gallop for extreme speed in harness. When roads were primitive the easy motion of the pacer was desirable in a saddle horse, but, as roads were improved and the habit of driving became prevalent, the trot was found to be the best gait for the horse in harness and most agreeable for the driver. Prior to 1870 pacers were not much favored for racing except in Kentucky, where Tom Crowder and Davy Crockett were famous for their speed. Fast horses of the type were generally converted into trotters, for as late as 1870 only fifty-nine pacing races were scheduled in the entire country. This apparent indifference was not due to lack of speed on the part of the pacers, for in 1839 Drover went a mile in 2:28, which was several seconds faster than the popular trotter, Lady Suffolk. Sixteen years later the fleet pacing mare Pocahontas set the mark at 2:17½ which was not reached by the trotters until the days of Dexter. Following the Civil War interest in the pacer increased, largely as a result of the demand for easy-gaited saddle horses. In addition, the racing card at almost every agricultural fair contained a few pacing events, which stimulated owners and trainers to develop the natural pacers rather than to convert them into trotters by the application of toe weights and the correction of the foot balance.

THE FAME OF DAN PATCH

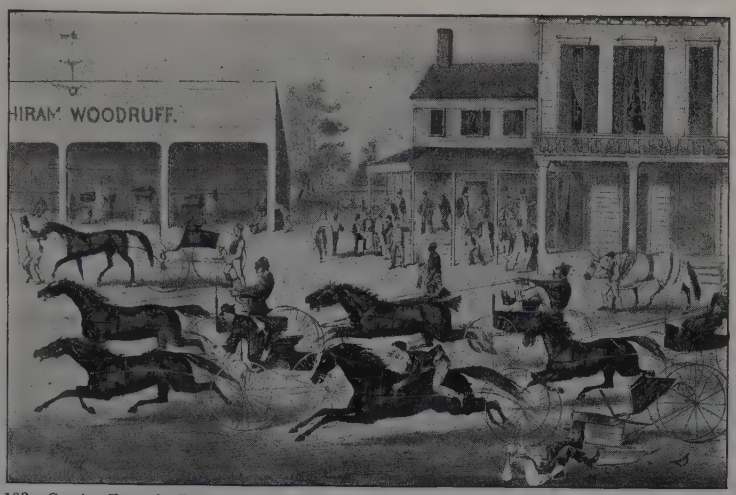
FROM 1860 until the opening of the twentieth century there was a gradual reduction of the mile pacing record which paralleled the increased speed of the trotters. In the decade of the 'nineties John R. Gentry and Star Pointer, between whose owners there was intense rivalry, set and broke the two-minute mark. Then appeared the pacer whose performance is still unsurpassed. Dan Patch was foaled at Oxford, Indiana, in 1896. His sire and dam were pacers who traced back to fast trotting stock, Rysdyk's Hambletonian being one of his progenitors. When he was six years old he paced to wagon at Louisville in Star Pointer's time of 1:59¼. During his next three seasons he clipped seconds from the record, displaying in his manner of going a faultless style which betokened the champion. On September 8, 1906, at St. Paul, Minnesota, he established the time of 1:55 which has not been equaled. All of Dan Patch's important trials were made with the protection of a wind or dust shield carried by a runner to sulky preceding the racer. The fastest pacing in the open was by Directum I at Syracuse in 1915, when the mark of 1:56¾ was set.

101 Dan Patch, from a photograph by Schreiber, Philadelphia. © 1903

102 Star Pointer, from a photograph in the New York Public Library

ROAD DRIVING

In the northern states road driving was popular from the opening of the nineteenth century, but it lacked any formal organization except in the neighborhood of the centers of population, where private fortunes were sufficient to permit gentlemen to enjoy a stimulating sport requiring little physical exertion. Prior to 1830 the "merchant princes" of Philadelphia and New York were learning the fine muscular pleasure of the skillful reinsman behind a good trotter, which had long been a delight to the rural classes even with their more plebeian equipment. By mid-century New York had become the center of keen competition among the gentlemen amateurs. Commodore Vanderbilt with his "pony team" of bays and Robert Bonner skillfully guiding Flatbush Maid and Lady Palmer became familiar sights along Harlem Lane. Soon these pioneers were joined by scores of others; among them William H. Vanderbilt, Jay Gould, Ogden Mills, John D. Rockefeller and W. D. Sloane. A brush on the road might be followed by a test of speed on the half-mile track at Bloomingdale, or an argument over respective merits might be resolved by a race at Union Course or Fashion Park on Long Island. In 1869 the leading road drivers formed the Driving Club of New York with headquarters at Fleetwood Park, which remained for twenty years the representative club in America. It soon had its imitators in Boston, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Baltimore, and cities in the West, where the merits of sectional favorites were tested in strictly amateur meets.

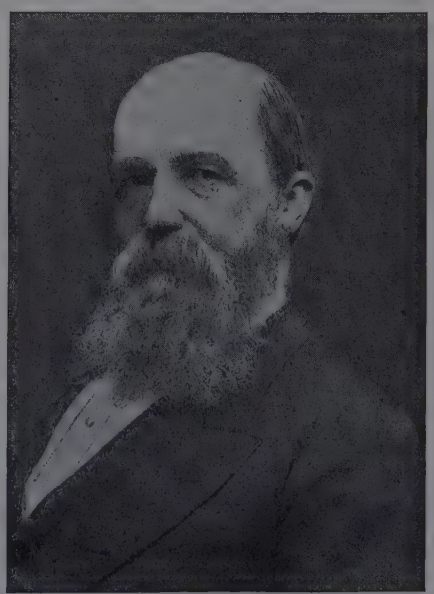


103 *Coming From the Trot*, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, 1869, after a drawing by Thomas Worth, courtesy of J. F. Sabin

104 Commodore Vanderbilt driving Plough Boy and Post Boy, from a drawing in *The New York Illustrated News*, March 21, 1863

THE MATINÉE DRIVING CLUBS

It was the desire of many of the road drivers to limit as far as possible the influence of commercialism and professionalism in light-harness racing. Some of them, notably Robert and David Bonner, regarded the race course as incidental to amateur driving. By example and precept they urged wealthy owners to train and drive their fastest horses. It was this spirit which was largely responsible for the revival of the matinée driving clubs later in the century. During the 'nineties the Parkway Driving Club of Brooklyn, the Gentlemen's Driving Club of Cleveland, and the Pittsburgh Driving Club were examples of the attempt to encourage amateur racing. The more important associations arranged matinée programs once a week throughout the season from May to September. Most of them had fast mile tracks where racing under saddle as well as in harness increased the skill of the amateurs entered. An occasional "ladies' day," usually regarded as a novelty, indicated that there were horsewomen in the country as competent to handle the reins as the best horsemen. In time the amateur driving clubs compromised with the professional for the sake of bringing faster competition to their tracks.



105 Robert Bonner, from a photograph in *Turf, Field and Farm*, February 16, 1900

106 *Sealskin Brigade*, from the painting by Scott Leighton in the Hotel Vanderbilt, New York

THE DOUBLE HARNESS CLASS

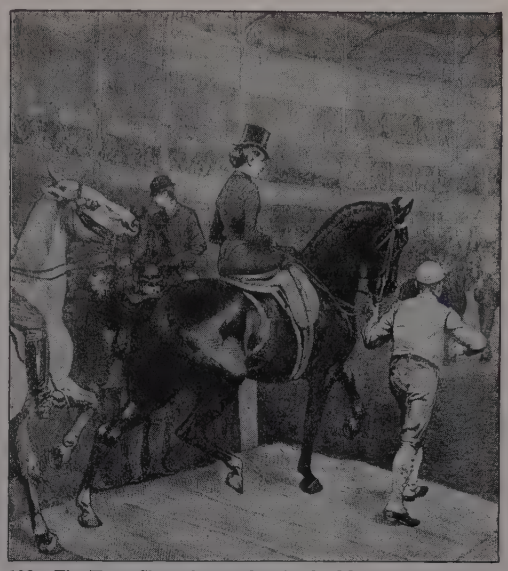
In the halcyon days of prosperity which marked the nation's recovery from the panic of 1873, few of the rising captains of industry were without their pairs of fast trotters and correctly appointed road wagons. Harlem Lane in New York, Fairmount Park in Philadelphia, and the roads leading out from Boston were scenes of lively encounters between spirited horses. On pleasant afternoons Harlem Lane was thronged with horsemen keen to challenge or accept a challenge, for each was confident of the speed of his horse or pair. More delightful to the spectator was the scene on a bright winter's day, when the snow was hard packed, ready for the flashy cutters of the "sealskin brigade." Then came the impromptu races with three and four participants stretched across the roadway, crowding the spectators out of their path. On the track, too, speed in double harness was tested by amateur reinsmen. William H. Vanderbilt with Maud S. and Aldine competed with William Rockefeller, who drove Cleora and Independent. Vanderbilt's record of 2:15½ for the mile, made in 1883, was extraordinary in view of the slow track and the high-wheeled wagon. Nearly ten years later Cicero J. Hamlin of Buffalo drove Belle Hamlin and Honest George to set the mark of 2:12¼. Not for another decade was the record bettered. In 1903, at a time when double-harness racing was almost a memory of the past, C. K. G. Billings made the mile circuit in 2:08 on his Memphis track with The Work and Equity.

COACHING DAYS

For several centuries coaching was an extensive business enterprise in the United States before it became a pleasurable sport. Even after the railroad had connected most of the hamlets of the country with a network of steel, coach routes existed in regions where the locomotive had not yet penetrated. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century there were popular coach routes in the White Mountains, through the foothills of the Adirondacks, and around the Finger Lakes in western New York. Across the plains of the Far West the "overland route" surrendered but slowly to the irresistible expansion of the transcontinental lines. Coaching as a sport was entirely confined to the larger cities, with New York occupying a preëminent position from the time the Coaching Club was formed in 1875. Its parade through Central Park, up Harlem Lane and Jerome Avenue to the races at Jerome Park was one of the colorful events of the season. Not only was coaching a spectacular attraction for the public, but it was rare sport for the participants. Something of the romance of bygone days hung over the long drive behind a four-in-hand of fast horses, with an experienced whip in gay-colored costume, the guard winding his horn, and the coach swaying with thrilling effect on the curves. But with the coming of the motor car, coaching and coach racing were crowded from the highways to be perpetuated only in the elaborate displays at the horse shows.

107 The Four-in-hand Club on the way to the races at Jerome Park, from a drawing by Albert Berghaus in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly*, November 27, 1875

THE NATIONAL HORSE SHOW

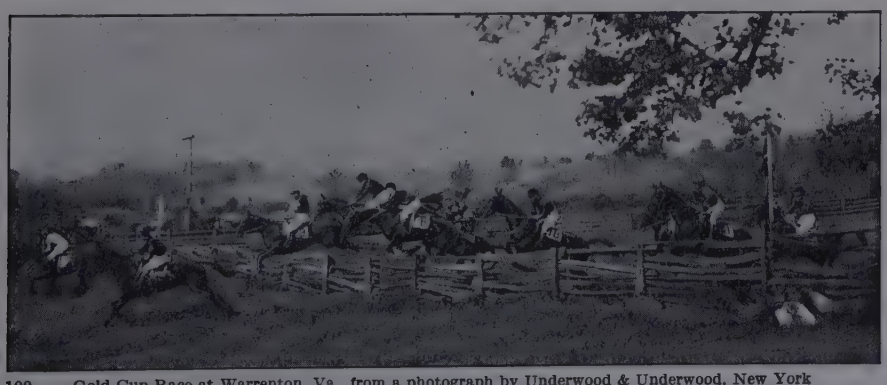


108 The Horse Show, from a drawing by Max Klepper in *Harper's Weekly*, November 21, 1891

In its inception the horse show was a means to an end, the development of standard types for use as saddlers, hunters, coach and carriage horses. Today it is largely an end in itself, for few of the horses exhibited except the saddlers and hunters are used for anything but show purposes. Prior to the first exhibition of the National Horse Show Association in Gilmore's Garden, the forerunner of the old Madison Square Garden, horse shows for the demonstration of speed rather than form had been a feature of many of the state fairs. The new venture in 1885 was primarily concerned with form and conformity to type. Organized by breeders and fanciers, amateur road drivers, and professional racing men, it succeeded after some difficulty in setting standards for American carriage and saddle horses which were recognized by all breeders. On matters connected with form, appointments, and accoutrements its word became law for the horsemen of the nation. Under the presidency of Cornelius Fellowes of the Coney Island Jockey Club, who was ably assisted by James Trevelyan Hyde, the New York show became the model for the indoor and outdoor exhibitions of other associations at Boston, Philadelphia, Atlanta, St. Louis, and Kansas City. As a social event it inspired the fashionable shows at Newport, Saratoga, Long Branch, and Piping Rock. The new Madison Square Garden houses the present meetings of the National Horse Show Association, but the reality of former days, when amateurs entered and drove or rode their own harness and saddle horses, is gone.

CROSS-COUNTRY RACING

Prior to 1875 there were few Americans who enjoyed the adventure of cross-country riding and racing. South of Mason and Dixon's Line and in certain counties of Pennsylvania fox hunting had contributed to the continuance of the sport, but elsewhere the vogue of the harness horse had overshadowed any interest in the hunter and the jumper. At the opening of the twentieth century, however, there were more than twenty organizations running hounds, many of them having flagged courses for cross-country racing. At Boston, on Long Island, in New Jersey, Maryland, and North Carolina steeplechasing had a small but earnest group of devotees, who found the sport of schooling their horses quite as exciting as the actual racing over fences, walls, and streams. Although seldom as adept as the professional steeplechase jockeys many of the amateur riders became the most proficient equestrians of whom the country could boast. With the outbreak of the World War came a period of greater activity in cross-country racing. The break-up of some of the large British stables resulted in the importation of hundreds of thoroughbreds and hunters into the United States, with a consequent stimulation of interest in amateur racing. In addition war profits meant that there were more amateurs than ever before who could indulge in the relatively costly sports of the turf. This was noticeable in the brilliance of the meets of the hunt clubs and the steeplechase associations which attained an unprecedented popularity after the war. Though participation in cross-country racing is limited to the few, for the rest there is the satisfaction which comes from the panoply of colors, the thrill of the jumps, and the breathless moments as the horses come down the home stretch.



109 Gold Cup Race at Warrenton, Va., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

110 Thanksgiving Ride of the Russell Gardens Riding Club, Long Island, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE RIDING CLUBS

ALTHOUGH the pioneer riding clubs in American cities were formed as early as the middle of the last century, the vogue of the saddle horse came almost a generation later. When the roads were filled with fast trotters, the demand for the park hack and the Kentucky-gaited saddler was at its peak. Society, particularly the younger set, supported the riding clubs with enthusiasm. Young men and women crowded the fashionable riding academies to learn the fine points of equestrian etiquette. The sports journals were filled with solemn debate over the respective merits of the cross saddle and side saddle for ladies. On the public bridle path or in the riding-club ring, proper form was all important. For years the New York Riding Club served as the arbiter of all disputes. As its members dressed for the canter in the park or the exhibition at the horse show, so did the majority of the riding world. Even the unorganized riders in the small towns carefully copied within the limits of their resources the style and practice of the city clubs. Then came the motor car with the attraction of its unprecedented speed on the road and the glory of the riding clubs was dimmed.

THE PASSING OF THE HORSE

WHILE the automobile was still in its probationary stages, an eminent sportsman discussing the future of amateur racing expressed the following sentiment: "The man who has once driven a smart trotter may content himself with a relative of the street car some time, but it will only be in his extreme old age." During the quarter century since this confident note was sounded the "relative of the street car" has revolutionized American life. Not the least part of the change has been the crowding of the horse from our highways. The race track still flourishes, drawing greater throngs and paying larger stakes than ever before, the Grand Circuit still holds the loyal devotees of harness racing, but the amateur driver of fast trotters has disappeared. His place on country road and urban speedway is taken by the automobile. Even the saddle horse is restricted to the public parks or the specially prepared bridle paths at country clubs and popular resorts. A nation on wheels seems to have spelled the doom of riding and driving. Yet the motor car is in some communities helping the urbanite back to the horse. It serves to transport the rider from the congestion of city streets and the artificial restraints of public parks into suburban districts where it is possible to enjoy an uninterrupted gallop. Nature's invitation "to make one's self at home in the saddle" is being widely accepted and thousands are learning for the first time the joy of ambling, far from traffic, along sun-spotted roads.

111 The Horse and his Successor, from a photograph by C. P. Cushing, from Ewing Galloway, New York

CHAPTER III

YACHTING AND AQUATICS

ON March 4, 1929, Charles Francis Adams became Secretary of the Navy in the cabinet of President Hoover. His appointment, in one sense, was a recognition of the fine skill and high traditions of those American yachtsmen who for almost a century have found recreation in sailing their own craft. A competent skipper, whose ability has been tested in many a cruise and race, Secretary Adams represents in the twentieth century the same seamanship that produced and sailed those marvels of nautical art — the fleet clipper ships. It was in the day of the clippers that Americans first turned in considerable numbers to the sport of yachting. In 1851, the same year that Boston merchants challenged British shippers to a race from England to China and back again, the cup offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron, as a symbol of international supremacy, was won by the *America*, entry of a few enthusiastic yachtsmen in New York City.

Never a popular diversion because of its costliness, yachting won its devotees among the wealthy residents of the bustling ports on the Atlantic seaboard. Into its development and expansion flowed funds drawn from fortunes accumulated during the blatant prosperity of the "fabulous 'forties." A generation of merchants, bankers, railroad builders, land speculators and cotton planters, some of them descended from pioneers who had dared the dangers of the deep in winning a livelihood, spent its leisure hours enjoying the eternal spell of the sea. At the dawn of a mechanical age, when the swift clipper was going the way of the ponderous old "Indiamen," as steam replaced sail, the yacht clubs perpetuated the glories of American seamanship, albeit in quieter waters than those which swept the commercial highways of the seven seas. By their successful defense of the international trophy against all challengers, they stirred the imagination of the country, until farmers and ranchers on the land-locked plains beyond the Mississippi joined their countrymen of the seaboard in hailing each yachting victory as a national triumph. With the passing years they inspired such emulation in the newer citadels of industry and commerce that the placid reaches of inland lakes were eventually whitened by the sails of cruising fleets and colorful regattas.

Meanwhile the multitude of those financially unable to indulge in yachting found in the handling of small craft that same sense of power enjoyed by the yachtsman as he mastered wind and wave. In canoe clubs, boating associations, and rowing crews, they became skilled oarsmen. Their organizations served many a community as an important center of its social life, while their periodic meets convinced spectators of the benefits to be derived from systematic training. By the 'sixties and 'seventies of the last century the intercollegiate crew races had become the most spectacular pageants of the college year. For the participant there was high drama in the severe regimen of preparation for the race, in the gay crowds that lined the course, and in the suspense before the starting signal. His spirit soared as the shell raced swiftly, almost fiercely, through the water, the silence broken only by the sound of the oarlocks, the rhythmic dip of the oars, the sharp bark of the coxswain, and dimly from a great distance the cheers of thousands urging him on to his utmost effort. The oarsman, training for this crucial test, gained strength, perhaps, for life.

112 *Cleopatra's Barge* of Salem, from a painting in the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass.

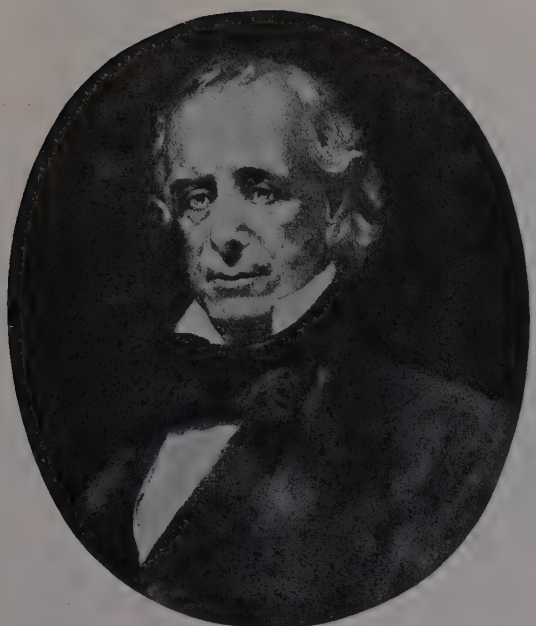
CLEOPATRA'S BARGE

The mercantile supremacy of the maritime provinces of New England was well established in the New World long before prosperous merchants, most of them also able seamen, came to regard sailing in any other light than as a business enterprise. During the latter half of the eighteenth century barges and small sloops were tested for speed, but there were few who built and sailed yachts as a pleasurable avocation. The riches of the Oriental trade had already begun to flow into the Boston and Salem countinghouses, when Captain George Crowninshield turned some of his profits into the building of yachts. As a member of a famous mercantile family in Salem, from early youth he had studied navigation and the designing of vessels. At the age of twenty he was captain of a vessel in the China trade but his life work was associated with the designing, building, and equipping of his firm's ships. In 1801 he constructed for his own use a twenty-two ton sloop, which he named the *Jefferson* in honor of the newly-elected President whose principles he enthusiastically supported. William Bentley, pastor of the East Church, Salem, records in his diary the pleasant recollections of cruises on Crowninshield's yacht, which were interrupted in 1812 when the sloop was equipped as a privateer. Anxious to own a yacht in which he could visit foreign parts, the Salem merchant designed a schooner-rigged vessel of nearly two hundred tons and commissioned Retire Becket, later a famous builder of clippers, to construct it. Its launching in 1816 was an event of importance not only for Salem but for the surrounding communities. Hundreds visited it every month while it lay at anchor in the early spring of 1817. Then the beautiful schooner was christened *Cleopatra's Barge* and sailed for the Mediterranean, visiting the Azores, Madeira, and Gibraltar on the way to the important Italian ports. This was its only extensive cruise for Captain Crowninshield died soon after his return from the Mediterranean and his yacht was sold as a coastwise merchant vessel. Ultimately it became the royal yacht of King Kamehameha I of the Sandwich Islands.

EARLY NEW ENGLAND YACHTSMEN

Captain George Crowninshield was a pioneer in the development of interest in yachting throughout the regions bordering on Massachusetts Bay. There were others who soon matched his enthusiasm, though they could not always equal the magnificence and size of *Cleopatra's Barge*. In 1816 Thomas Doubleday had a twenty-foot sloop in which he cruised the waters of Cape Cod Bay. A decade later Doubleday's cousin, Robert B. Forbes, won fame as a designer of yachts, building the *Sylph* in 1834 for John P. Cushing of Boston. At the same time Forbes and his friends attempted to organize a yacht club, but the organization crashed in the panic of 1837 and was not subsequently revived. The first yacht of size during this period was the *Northern Light*, owned by Colonel William P. Winchester of Boston. It did not follow the lines of the merchant vessel as did the Crowninshield schooner, but it was designed to stand a heavier sea than the small sloops used for cruising alongshore.

113 The *Northern Light*, from a painting by an unknown artist, in the Marine Museum, Boston



114 Commodore John C. Stevens, from a photogravure of the portrait by Charles Loring Elliott (1812–68), in the Stevens' Mansion, Hoboken, N. J., reproduced in Winfield M. Thompson and Thomas W. Lawson, *The Lawson History of the America's Cup*, Boston, 1902

115 George Steers, 1820–56, from a portrait in Winfield M. Thompson and Thomas W. Lawson, *The Lawson History of the America's Cup*, Boston, 1902

COMMODORE JOHN C. STEVENS, 1785–1857

John C. Stevens through his life was an enthusiastic yachtsman and patron of the sport. From his father, the famous engineer John Stevens, he inherited not only a love for the sea but also a deep interest in the mechanical aspects of navigation. While the elder Stevens was experimenting with the application of steam power to sea-going vessels, the son was devoting time and money to the perfection of the pleasure craft which he loved to sail on the Sound or up the Hudson. One of his early schooners, *Wave*, developed such speed that he sought competition beyond the waters of New York harbor. In 1835 he sailed to Boston, where he challenged John P. Cushing to match his *Sylph* against the *Wave*. A race was arranged which Stevens easily won. After 1840 Stevens formed a fortunate friendship with George Steers, a young yacht designer and shipbuilder of unusual ingenuity. Together they planned the *Gimcrack* and worked on modifications of the schooner-yacht which Steers believed would increase speed. The *Gimcrack* was not successful as a racer, but she became the first ship of the fleet when Stevens was elected commodore of the New York Yacht Club.

116 The *Gimcrack*, from a model made in 1844, in the New York Yacht Club

THE NEW YORK YACHT CLUB

Early in the nineteenth century several attempts to form a club had been made by gentlemen who enjoyed sailing pleasure craft, but the first successful association of yachtsmen was the New York Yacht Club, organized on July 30, 1844, in the cabin of Mr. Stevens' schooner *Gimcrack*. Nine owners of schooners and sloops participated in the first annual cruise. The following year the first home of the Club was erected at the Elysian Fields, Hoboken, where the Knickerbocker Baseball Club was beginning its exhibition contests. For twenty years thereafter, the annual regattas were sailed off the club house promontory. Although the New York association was but the first of a large number of yacht clubs, it was the only one for a quarter of a century which exercised more than a local influence. It alone possessed yachts large enough and sufficiently numerous to essay regular squadron cruises. Before the Civil War its pennant was a familiar sight in every harbor from Glen Cove to Martha's Vineyard and its regattas drew more than a local audience to witness the public races,

117 Regatta of the Eastern Yacht Club, Marblehead, Mass., 1845, from a painting in the Club House at Marblehead

CRUISES AND REGATTAS

Although every skilled yachtsman was eager to demonstrate the speed of his craft, the public races and elaborate regattas were incidental to the private cruises and afternoon sailings, which afforded the real enjoyment of the sport. There were few yacht owners of the early period who could not handle their craft and most of them made a practise of sailing frequently. Any fine afternoon of the season the splendid fleet of the New York Club could be seen getting under way down the bay or up the Hudson River, for the expanding commerce of the port had not yet encroached upon the cruising waters. Congenial parties arranged cruises up the Sound, which afforded not only pleasant associations, but also opportunity to display expert seamanship, the chief glory of the yachtsman. Such pleasures were not confined to any one club. They were equally the joy of the Eastern Yacht Club in the waters of Massachusetts Bay, of the Southern Club on Lake Pontchartrain, or the Carolina yachtsmen with headquarters at Wilmington.

BUILDING THE *AMERICA*

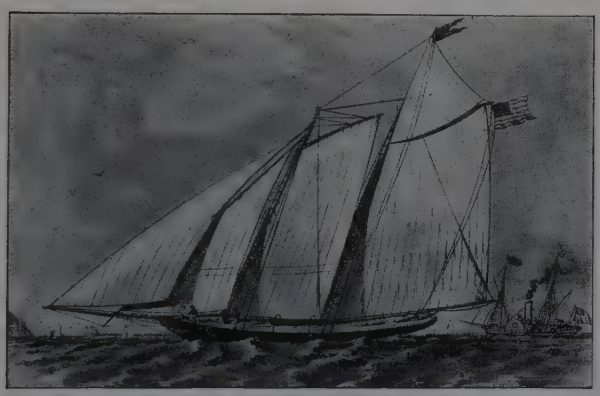
In the autumn of 1850 the first world's fair was opened in London with elaborate ceremonial. One part of its varied program of events was a regatta, arranged under the auspices of the Royal Yacht Squadron for the late summer of the following year. The New York Yacht Club accepted an invitation to participate, but Commodore Stevens felt that there was no craft in the country worthy to meet the British entries. Accordingly he organized a syndicate which financed the building of a boat for the occasion. The contract was given to the shipyard of William H. Brown, where the able builder George Steers could supervise construction. The plans called for a keel craft fitted for the ocean voyage, modeled on the lines of the fast New York pilot boats. She was one hundred and one feet, nine inches over all, with a mainmast eighty-one feet long, a foremast seventy-nine feet, and a bowsprit thirty-two feet. Her total sail area was five thousand, two hundred and sixty-three square feet. When completed she was christened *America*. On June 21 she sailed for Havre, making the trip without mishap in twenty-one days. As her challenges to sail against foreign schooners were unanswered, her speed was untested until the international race sponsored by the Royal Yacht Squadron.

118 The *America* ready for launching, from an engraving in *Gleason's Pictorial*, May 31, 1851

119 The *Maria* outsailing the *America*, from a water-color by Fred S. Cozzens in the Stevens' Mansion, Hoboken, N. J., reproduced in Winfield M. Thompson and Thomas W. Lawson, *The Lawson History of the America's Cup*, Boston, 1902

AN AMERICAN VICTORY

On August 22 the *America*, having failed to sail the race for the Queen's Cup at Cowes, entered the competition for a special cup offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron for a race around the Isle of Wight. It was a course notoriously difficult. Eighteen yachts started, ranging in size from the forty-seven-ton cutter *Aurora* to the three-masted schooner *Brilliant*, for there were no restrictions on tonnage or rig. The *America* was listed as a one-hundred-and-seventy-ton schooner. From the start the American entry demonstrated her speed and seaworthiness, crossing the finish line twenty-four minutes in advance of the light cutter *Aurora*. It was a great victory for the representatives of the small yacht club in New York. They had matched their skill with the best yachtsman in the oldest yacht club in the world, and had won.

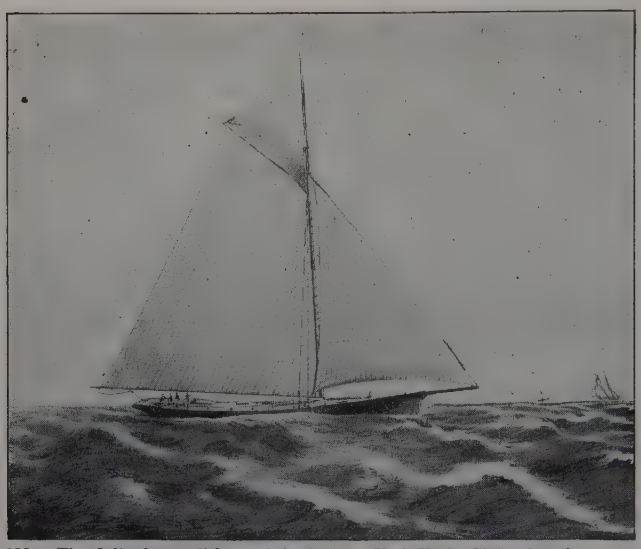


120 The *America* passing the Royal Yacht *Victoria and Albert* while winning the Royal Yacht Squadron Cup, August 22, 1851, from a contemporary lithograph

THE *AMERICA'S* CUP

The victory of the *America* meant more than the mere winning of a prize cup valued at one hundred guineas. The trophy brought back by Commodore Stevens and his associates became the symbol of the proficiency of successive generations of American yachtsmen, a treasure jealously guarded because of the sentimental associations of sportsmanship on the seas. In 1857 the five owners of the *America*, John C. Stevens, Edwin A. Stevens, Hamilton Wilkes, George L. Schuyler and J. Beekman Finley presented the cup to the New York Yacht Club as a perpetual challenge cup open to competition by yachts of all nations. So ably has the New York club defended the prize that it has never been won by yachtsmen from abroad. The old *America* now lies in dock at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis.

121 The *America's* Cup, from a photograph, courtesy of Tiffany & Co., New York



122 The *Julia*, from a lithograph in the New York Yacht Club, after the painting by W. Marsh

THE CENTER-BOARD SLOOPS

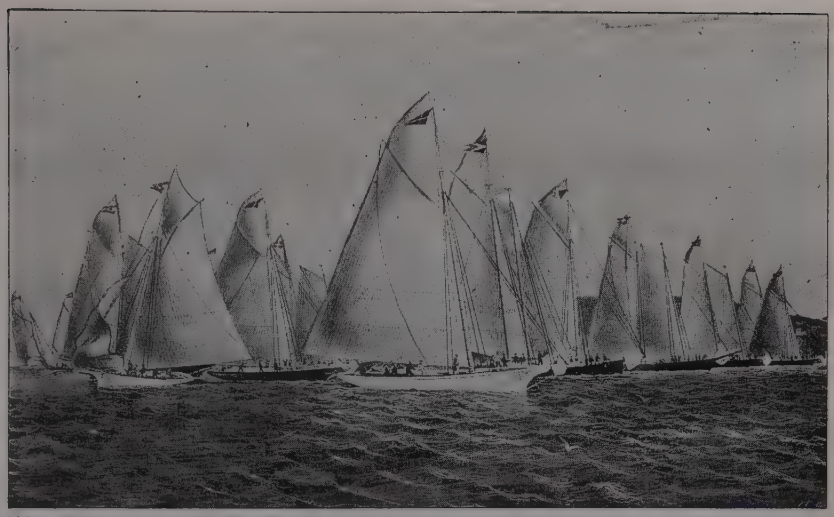
For a quarter century after the victory of the *America* the influence of her design dominated the builders of American yachts. Before her day bows were short, full, and bluff, while sterns were long and often fine. In the *America* this "cod's head and mackerel tail" model disappeared. She had a long, fine bow and a short but fine stern. Her builder, George Steers, however, was partial to the light center-board type, and most of his competitors in yacht designing showed a similar preference. Some of them carried the principal features of the type to extremes in order to secure speed, but Steers never exaggerated the main characteristics, which included great beam for sail-carrying power, little depth to avoid resistance, and ballast stowed inboard. His center-board sloop the *Julia* was an excellent example of proper proportions. She had moderate breadth, good depth of body, well balanced ends, and correct ballast and sail. Although fast, she was safer than many of the center-board sloops of the period, which were apt to be treacherous in rough weather.

THE GREAT SCHOONERS

During the decade of the 'fifties the schooner-rig had become standard for yachts of more than one hundred tons burden. With the outbreak of the Civil War owners of schooners both North and South offered them for naval service. The *America*, at the moment in Confederate hands, became a dispatch boat and blockade runner. The yacht clubs of the northern states welcomed the opportunity to put such of their craft as were large enough at the service of the United States Government. The period of hostilities meant a temporary lull in regattas and racing activities, but no diminution of interest in yachting as a sport. This was evident from the large number of schooners launched in the year following Appomattox. Ranging in size from ninety-two to three hundred and ten tons they formed a fleet unequaled even in the English Channel. Dissatisfied with the competition in the regular club regattas during 1866, Pierre Lorillard, Jr., arranged to race his center-board schooner, the *Vesta*, against the *Fleetwing*, owned by George and Franklin Osgood. The course was to be from the Sandy Hook Lightship to a finish at the Needles, England. Subsequently, James Gordon Bennett, Jr., was permitted to enter his keel schooner, the *Henrietta*, for the sweepstakes of ninety thousand dollars. On December 11, 1866, the first transatlantic yacht race started in heavy weather. On Christmas Day, after battling several gales, the *Henrietta* reached the Needles more than eight hours ahead of the *Fleetwing*. The winner, with Mr. Bennett aboard, had sailed three thousand one hundred and six miles in thirteen days, twenty-one hours, and fifty-five minutes. American yachtsmen were proud of the seamanship which brought all contestants to their destination without mishap.

123 The start of the race between the *Henrietta*, the *Vesta* and the *Fleetwing*, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, December 29, 1866

THE DECLINE OF CORINTHIAN YACHTING

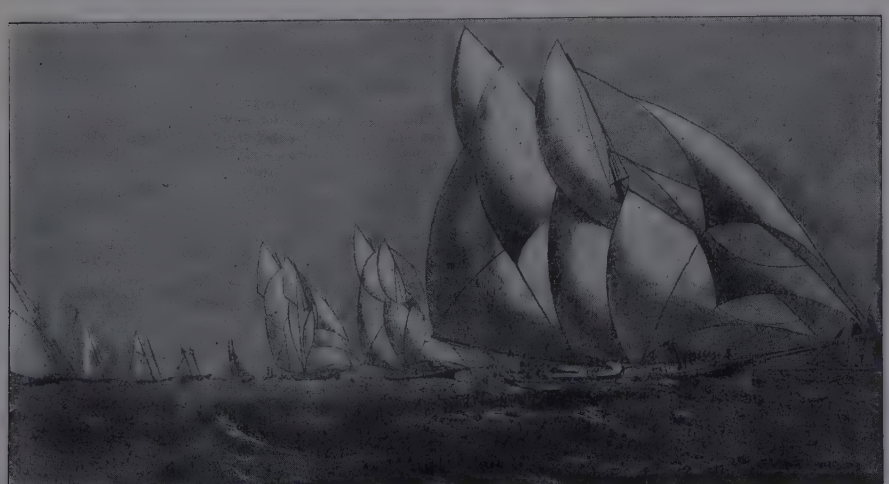


124 Regatta of the New York Yacht Club, June 1, 1854, from a lithograph by N. Currier, 1854, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York

THE trans-oceanic race between the *Henrietta*, the *Fleetwing*, and the *Vesta* redounded to the credit of the New York Yacht Club both at home and abroad. English yachtsmen began to regard the American organization as on a plane of equality with the Royal Yacht Squadron, while in the United States the club's prestige was quickly reflected in its growth. Within a year after the publicity accorded the race across the Atlantic the membership was doubled, the newer contingent coming mainly from the ranks of those unacquainted with navigation and seamanship. With the influx of members ignorant of boat handling, Corinthian yachting rapidly declined. This was true not only in New York but in other clubs where the charter members had been practical yachtsmen who sailed or could sail their own craft. For every amateur skipper there was now a proportionately large number of wealthy owners who employed professional seamen to handle their yachts.

THE FIRST CHALLENGER

FOR more than a decade after the *America's* cup became a perpetual challenge cup for all nations there was no attempt made to win it from the custody of the New York Yacht Club. The conditions imposed by the club were regarded as too severe by most English yachtsmen, but in 1870 James Ashbury agreed that he would race the *Cambria* against the entire fleet of the New York club, since the *America* had originally won her trophy in competition with the ships of the Royal Yacht Squadron. Ashbury's hopes were high, for his yacht had defeated James Gordon Bennett's *Dauntless* in a race across the Atlantic earlier in the year. More than a score of schooners and sloops were entered against the challenger, among them the *America*, then the property of the United States Navy. The race proved to be an uninteresting procession with the *Magic* leading the way and the *Cambria* finishing tenth. Undismayed Mr. Ashbury promptly built a new schooner, the *Livonia*, and challenged again in 1871. This time the New York Yacht Club consented to name four ships of its fleet, any one of which might be designated as cup defender. The best four out of seven races were to determine the winner. The *Columbia* won two of its three races, and the *Sappho* completed the victory by crossing the line twice ahead of the *Livonia*. The performance of the *Magic* in 1870 and of the *Columbia* the following year convinced the adherents of the center-board schooner that their skimming-dish type, with plenty of breadth and little draft, was the fastest of all yachts.



125 The race for the *America's* Cup, from a drawing by Charles Parsons (1821–1910), in *Harper's Weekly*, August 27, 1870

126 The *Mischief* winning her race with the *Atalanta*, November 9, 1881, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, November 26, 1881

THE CANADIAN INVASION

Five years passed after the *Livonia's* defeat before another cup race stirred New York yachting circles. After considerable bickering over terms the challenge of the Royal Canadian Yacht Club of Toronto was accepted. Our northern neighbors sent a center-board schooner modeled along the skimming-dish lines at the moment so popular in this country. The *Countess of Dufferin* differed little in type from the schooner *Madeline* selected to meet her. Both were capable of remarkable speed under favorable weather conditions but the American defender was apt to be faster in a thrash to windward. Although the challenger was not in proper condition two races were sailed in the centennial year, which were viewed by many visitors from inland cities where the competition of the small yacht classes was becoming important. The victory of the *Madeline* marked the end of the cup races between schooners. Though Canada challenged again in 1881, her selection was a seventy-foot sloop, the *Atalanta*, brought to New York by way of the Erie Canal and the Hudson. Among the American seventy-foot class the *Mischief* was considered the best. She was of iron construction, rigged in a sort of compromise between the standard sloop equipment and that of the English cutter. She sailed to victory in both her races in November with an ease which vindicated the judgment of her builder in selecting the best features of American and British yacht design.

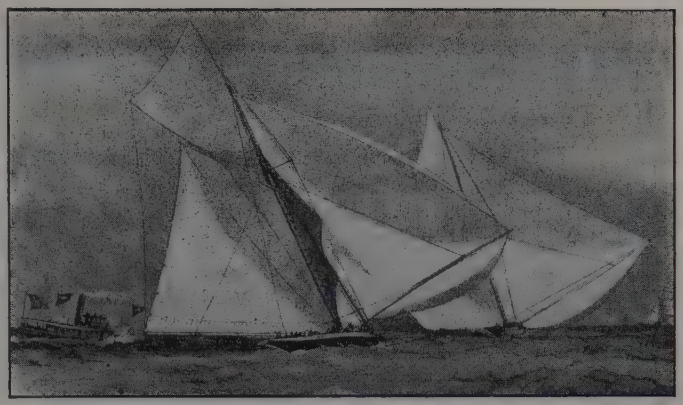
THE BATTLE OF THE TYPES

In the early regattas all yachts sailed as one class, subject to time allowances determined under the existing measurement rules, but before 1870 a distinction was made between schooners and sloops, followed by a classification based on water-line length within these divisions. Most of the sloops, whether in the seventy- or fifty-foot class, were broad and shallow centerboarders with enormous jib. Popular as the type was with a majority of designers and builders, there were some ardent champions of the keel boat with cutter rig, after the English models, who denounced American failure to build yachts of less breadth and greater depth and draft. These progressives, or "cutter cranks" as they were called, were largely responsible for the compromise worked out by eminent American builders. Without accepting in its entirety the rig of the English cutters, the compromisers followed the departure made in the design of the *Mischief* and reduced breadth, increased depth, accepted the lead keel, but did not abandon the centerboard or certain features of the traditional sloop rig. The *Bedouin*, built in 1882, was representative of the American cutters, while the *Fanny* of the same period was a typical center-board sloop.

127 The *Bedouin*, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

128 The *Fanny*, from a photograph by H. G. Peabody, Boston

THE CONTRIBUTION OF EDWARD BURGESS



129 The *Puritan* and the *Genesta* in the race for the *America's* Cup, from a drawing by F. O. Davidson, in *Harper's Weekly*, September 26, 1888

In 1884, while the controversy over types was still agitating yachting circles, certain business reverses compelled a member of a wealthy Boston family to turn to ship designing as a profession. Edward Burgess had always loved the sea. As a boy he sailed catboats in the bay or bore a hand in the activities of his father's importing business. The science of navigation was no mystery to him. An interest in natural history, however, prevented him from becoming a seaman, but did not interfere with his mastery of ship design. When it became necessary for him to secure a larger income, he determined to sell his talent as a naval architect. Fortunately a group of his friends in Boston who were at the moment preparing to build a yacht to defend the *America's* cup against the challenge of Sir Richard Sutton's *Genesta*, had confidence in his ability and commissioned him to design a cup defender. The result was the *Puritan*, launched in May 1885. A compromise cutter with center board and lead keel, she represented Burgess's sane appraisal of the two types of sloops. In mechanical details her rig closely followed that of the cutter, but there were a few variations from orthodox cutter practice. In decisive fashion she won her trial races with the *Priscilla*, built by a group of New York yachtsmen, and succeeded in defeating the challenger, though in the second race the *Genesta* was only one minute and thirty-eight seconds slower in crossing the finish line. The New York Yacht Club had agreed that if the *Genesta* lost, the cup would be defended at once against the *Galatea*, owned by Lieutenant William Henn of the Royal Navy. Again, Burgess was called upon to model a defender. The *Mayflower* was an enlarged and improved *Puritan*. In the races for the cup her superiority to the *Galatea* was obvious, for the challenger lacked the speed which the *Genesta* had shown the previous year. It seemed that the cup races were to become annual events when the Royal Clyde Yacht Club of Glasgow accepted terms for an attempt to win the trophy in 1887. So great was the fame of Burgess that for the third time in successive years he was called upon to draft plans for a new yacht. Departing somewhat from his two previous ships, he designed a center-board sloop with a clipper bow. She was eighty-five feet ten inches on the load water line and with her center-board down had a draft of twenty-one feet. Her sail area was three hundred square feet greater than that of the challenger, the *Thistle*. The *Volunteer*, as the defender was christened, was sailed by Captain Hank Haff, one of the cleverest American skippers. Under his expert seamanship she showed her superiority both in favorable and heavy weather.

130 Edward Burgess, from a drawing after a photograph in *Harper's Weekly*, October 1, 1887

131 The *Volunteer*, from a photograph by H. G. Peabody, Boston

132 Yachting in San Francisco Bay, from a photograph by Gabriel Moulin, San Francisco

THE EXPANSION OF YACHTING

The widespread publicity which attended the cup races during the three years after 1884 stimulated cruising and racing in regions remote from the scene of the Burgess triumphs. Measured by the demand for yachts of every class, the interest in sailing had never been greater. From Portland, Maine, to San Francisco Bay, new yacht clubs were organized or old ones revived. In 1869 there were fifteen clubs in the country holding annual regattas; two decades later, more than one hundred and twenty-five cruising and racing associations maintained fleets of varying size on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and the inland lakes. Important in this expansion was the increasing popularity of the smaller sloops with the consequent training of a rapidly growing group of amateur yachtsmen who endeavored to maintain the earlier traditions of their respective clubs.

THE SEAWANHAKA CORINTHIAN YACHT CLUB

133 The Seawanhaka Corinthian Yacht Club at Oyster Bay, from a drawing by William Patten in *The Book of Sport*, New York, 1901

Probably no organization in yachting circles has done more to encourage the amateur and preserve Corinthian yachting than the Seawanhaka Club. Formed in 1871 by a group of gentlemen interested in the sailing of open center-board boats in the vicinity of Oyster Bay, it quickly became a leader in emphasizing the technical side of the sport. Its goal was to give its members a knowledge of the principles involved in designing and constructing small yachts as well as training in the handling of their own craft. Though large schooners have flown its ensign, the fleet has generally been composed of small sloops. Its spring regattas for years were truly Corinthian in that officers and crews were amateur seamen.

THE RÔLE OF THE CATBOAT

134 A Catboat, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

The important element in the development of small yachts and racing craft was the catboat. Related to the boats which under oars or with a simple spritsail were vehicles of ferriage along the Atlantic seaboard, it became by the middle of the nineteenth century the established sailboat for young sportsmen. It seemed indispensable in the training of amateur seamen who were eager to prepare themselves for sailing more pretentious craft. The apprenticeship was difficult and dangerous, for most of the catboats were vastly overrigged with a proportionately heavy ballast of sandbags to be shifted as the boat tacked. There were variations of the craft in different communities. On the Delaware and the waters of New York harbor the "hiker" was popular — wide and shoal with enormous rig. Near Cape Cod the finest examples of the "cat" family were used for fishing as well as for pleasure sailing. Though a single mainsail with no jib was common, many carried a double rig and could sail as catboats or "jib-and-mainsail" boats, depending upon the classification of entries and the prizes offered.

THE RACING CANOE

135 Race at the Spring Meet of the Hudson River Canoe Clubs, from a drawing by W. J. Burns in *Harper's Weekly*, June 13, 1885

The first rival of the speeding catboat was the racing canoe. Introduced under English auspices by the New York Canoe Club in 1871, it brought to the sport of sailing additional pleasure through the instrumentality of an ancient craft. Many a glowing tale has been told of the explorers and missionaries, the trappers and traders, threading the mazes of western lakes and rivers in dugout and canoe. Where no other craft would carry them, where no other craft was serviceable, there the pioneers prized the birch-bark masterpiece of the American Indian. For centuries the canoe had been an invaluable medium of transportation before it became a popular instrument of sport. Its appeal as a racer was instantaneous and well-nigh universal. Within a few years it had revolutionized small boat sailing. Its votaries became skilled seamen who later earned fame in the mastery of large sloops and schooners. In the sailing canoe the sportsman could cruise to the rendezvous under sail or paddle, unload his equipment and provisions, set up his spars, and enter his craft in the sailing races. Or, if he preferred, he could unship his mast and compete against skilled opponents in the paddling races. In either event he had the satisfaction of fine sport and the pleasure of the cruise.

136 A Racing Canoe, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THE DAY OF THE SMALL YACHT

The victories of the Burgess sloops in the cup races of the 'eighties stimulated an interest in regions which had known no yachting other than the racing of sandbag catboats and sailing canoes. Clubs were formed near the inland lake regions of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, the promoters of which were anxious to develop small types. They received a valuable impetus in 1895, when word came from England to the New York Canoe Club that J. Arthur Brand had a half-rater, *Spruce IV*, which he wanted to race in America. As there were no yachts of the type in the country the Seawanhaka Corinthian Yacht Club volunteered to build a fifteen-footer with two hundred square feet of sail. In addition it offered a challenge cup, to be known as the Seawanhaka Corinthian Cup, as a trophy for small yachts. W. P. Stephens of the Club designed the *Ethelwynn* which defeated the *Spruce IV* in three races out of five. The following year the Royal St. Lawrence Yacht Club of Montreal challenged with the *Glencairn* and took the cup to Canada. Since that date the Montreal defenders have been almost as successful in holding the trophy against all challenges from American yachts men as the New York Yacht Club has been in defending the *America's* cup against British competitors.

137 The *Tara*, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

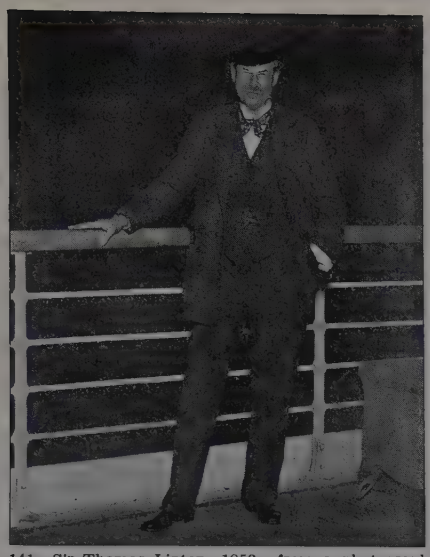
138 The *Valkyrie II* rounding the outer mark, October 7, 1893, from a photograph by H. G. Peabody, Boston

139 The *Vigilant* rounding the outer mark, October 7, 1893, from a photograph by H. G. Peabody, Boston

THE DUNRAVEN CHALLENGES

IMMEDIATELY after the victory of the *Volunteer* over the *Thistle* in 1887 the New York Yacht Club announced new rules for cup challengers under a "new deed of gift." Every challenger was required to give ten months' advance notice of his intention, stating the water-line length, the breadth, and the depth of the yacht which would race. The best two out of three races were to decide. There were many protests against the altered terms on the ground that it was impossible for a prospective challenger to give the measurements of his entry almost a year before the races would be sailed. For six years there was no attempt to "lift" the cup, though the fourth Earl of Dunraven, prominent in British politics, used every stratagem to persuade the New York club to accept his proposals. Finally an agreement was reached whereby Dunraven's *Valkyrie II* was granted a chance at the trophy in three out of five races. Against the keel cutter of composite design the New York Yacht Club named the *Vigilant*, a deep center-boarder designed by Herreshoff for a syndicate headed by C. Oliver Iselin. The defender won the first two races easily, but the third and decisive one, raced to windward on October 13, 1893, was thrillingly close, the *Vigilant* winning by forty seconds corrected time. The following year Lord Dunraven served notice of a second challenge. The *Valkyrie III*, a larger yacht than her predecessor, had a length of eighty-eight feet on the water line and a draft of twenty feet. She was built to meet the conditions of racing off Sandy Hook. Again, Herreshoff designed a yacht for Iselin and his associates. Christened *Defender*, she was a keel cutter of moderate breadth, with less draft and slightly less length on the load water line than the challenger. The *Valkyrie III* carried four hundred square feet more sail. After the first race, which the *Defender* won in a heavy sea by eight minutes, Dunraven complained that the American yacht was sailing deeper than her measurement. This charge was disproved by actual measurement. The second race was unsatisfactory because the English yacht fouled the *Defender* at the start and was disqualified. Dunraven apparently accepted the ruling, but after starting the final race ordered the racing flag lowered and sailed for New York leaving the *Defender* to finish the course alone. The sequel was unfortunate, for Lord Dunraven made charges which were not sustained, causing the New York Yacht Club to expel him from his honorary membership in the organization.

140 The victory of the *Defender*, from a drawing by Frank H. Schell, in *Leslie's Weekly*, September 19, 1895

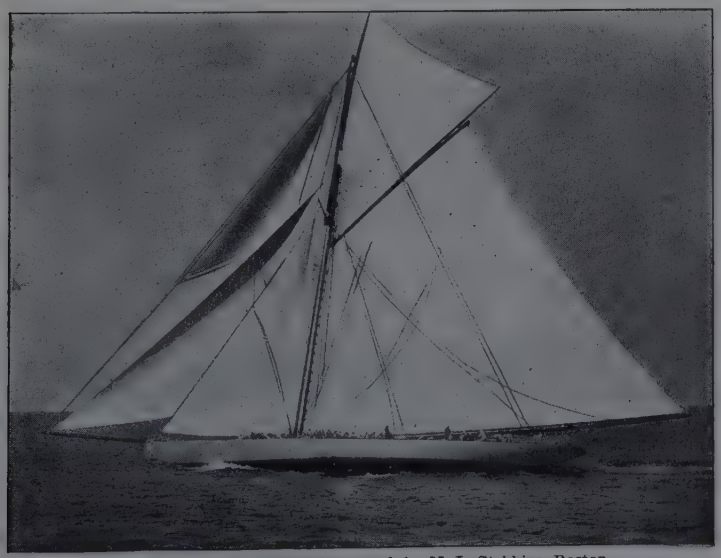


141 Sir Thomas Lipton, 1850–, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

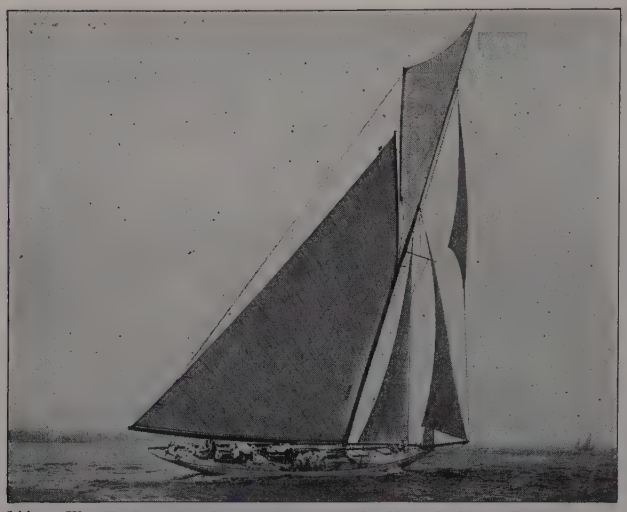
THE *SHAMROCKS*

THE present generation of Americans associates the *America's* cup races with the most genial as well as the most persistent challenger since the trophy became the symbol of yachting supremacy. In August 1898, while the country was still elated over the feats of its seamen and the evidence of its naval power in the war with Spain, the Royal Ulster Yacht Club of Belfast notified the New York Yacht Club of a challenge in the name of Sir Thomas Lipton's *Shamrock*. It was the first of a notable series in which no money was spared to humble the American defenders. To meet the *Shamrock I* in October, 1899, a New York syndicate headed by J. Pierpont Morgan and C. Oliver Iselin commissioned Herreshoff to build a third defender. The result was the *Columbia*, which defeated the *Shamrock I* and two years later her successor the *Shamrock II*. There is little doubt that the second *Shamrock* was faster than the American cutter, but the superior seamanship of Captain Barr made it possible for the *Columbia* to win three races. In 1903 Sir Thomas was again in American waters with a beautifully modeled cutter which aroused the admiration of all yachtsmen who saw her. The committee in charge of the cup's defense produced the mighty *Reliance*, the most extreme and powerful in the long list of defenders. She was within two inches of the limit on the load water line and had enormous overhangs. She carried the huge sail area of sixteen thousand one hundred and fifty-nine square feet, almost two thousand feet in excess of the *Shamrock III*. Her victories in the three races sailed were decisive enough to demonstrate her clear superiority. For a decade there were no further cup races, though Sir Thomas Lipton tried in vain to make arrangements which he considered satisfactory. When details were finally adjusted under the new Universal rule of measurement, the outbreak of war in Europe postponed the sailing of the races. During the period of American neutrality two yachts, the *Resolute* and the *Vanitie*, had shown that they were the best racers in Atlantic waters. With the renewal of the challenge in 1920 the *Resolute* was designated as the defender against the *Shamrock IV*, a considerably larger ship. The first two races were won by the challenger and it looked as if the long supremacy of American yachts and yachtsmen was about to end. But the remaining three races were victories for the *Resolute*, though she took the first of them merely by the time allowance, finishing on even terms with the *Shamrock IV*. Thus ended the *America's* cup races for the first half century of competition — fifty years of evidence that the passing of the clipper ship and the decline of the old merchant marine had not destroyed the ability of American skippers, seamen, and designers. An announcement in 1929, however, indicated that Sir Thomas Lipton still hoped to win the trophy for Great Britain.

142 The *Resolute*, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York



143 The *Shamrock I*, from a photograph by N. L. Stebbins, Boston



144 The *Yankee*, 1900, from a photograph by N. L. Stebbins, Boston

THE ONE-DESIGN CLASS

During the decade following 1890 there was much discussion of the mounting cost of yachting in the open classes because of the constant danger of being out-built and the short life of even the fastest racers. One means of reducing expense and at the same time securing close racing was to develop the one-design classes. In 1892 the Seawanhaka Corinthian Yacht Club built four catboats of similar design in order to permit the "rocking chair fleet" to test its theories of sailing. Four years later the first of the real one-design classes appeared in the thirty-footers built by Herreshoff for the yachtsmen of Newport. Known as the Newport thirties, it speedily became a favorite class and did much to popularize the one-design idea. Within a few years the Cohasset fifteen-footers, the Seawanhaka knockabouts, and a score of others all had their ardent partisans, most of them Corinthian sailors who found in the one-design class the real test of comparative seamanship. Equally significant was the fact that in the smaller classes women as well as men handled the boats in races and cruises. The one-design class was not, however, limited to small yachts. In 1900 came the most pretentious, the Herreshoff seventy-footers, well represented by the *Yankee*. They were followed by a bewildering variety of designs, some noted for beauty and comfort, others for speed. One of the most interesting classes was the Sound Schooner, an excellent cruising craft, but with only forty-one feet of length over all it was scarcely large enough for a two-master. Numbered by the hundreds the one-design class whitened the reaches of the inland lakes, as well as the bays and sounds of the seaboard, converting landsmen into Corinthian sailors capable of handling any craft in cruise or race.

YACHTING AND MARITIME AFFAIRS

With the victories of the *Puritan*, the *Mayflower* and the *Volunteer* pride in the accomplishment of American designers and builders, in the skill of American skippers and seamen, permeated groups which had never seen an international cup race. For thousands the sport became a symbol of the importance of sea power, and the widespread interest in it kept the nation in touch with maritime affairs, both naval and commercial. It may have been no mere coincidence that the period of the supremacy of the Burgess yachts was marked by the quickening of American interest in an adequate navy and a questioning of the policy which had permitted the merchant marine to decline. Even the Middle West was aroused in the decade after 1880 to an unwonted concern over the nation's position in maritime affairs, a concern which resulted in the scrapping of modern ships and the construction of a navy of steel. These were the years which witnessed the first real cruising and racing on the inland lakes.

145 The Detroit Yacht Club, from a photograph, courtesy of the Detroit Yacht Club

WHITE WINGS ON THE GREAT LAKES

THE first racing yachts on western waters, most of them centerboard sloops and sandbag catboats imported from the East, were normally accessory to the summer homes maintained by wealthy residents of Chicago, Minneapolis, and St. Paul on the neighboring inland lakes. Prior to 1880 the craft were too few to afford much racing, but in the following two decades their sails dotted not only the smaller lakes but also the choice bays and harbors of Michigan, Huron, and Erie. With the vogue of restricted and one-design classes each community developed its particular preference. At Chicago the twenty-one foot cabin class was popular, while on the eastern shore of Lake Michigan the small raceabouts were preferred. Detroit showed a tendency to glorify the catboat, while Toronto was proud of its dinghies. International racing was represented by contests for the *Canada's* cup, a trophy offered by Toledo in 1896, and by the attempts of the smaller yachts to take the Seawanhaka Cup from the Royal St. Lawrence Yacht Club of Montreal. From June until early October the cruises of local yacht clubs, the regattas of the Inland Lake Yachting Association, and the numerous cup races whitened the lakes from Buffalo to Duluth with pleasure craft of every description. Some of the best racing was witnessed in the challenges by representatives of the twenty-one foot class, but there was no more gala event in the whole Middle West than the regattas and races on Lake St. Clair, the home of Detroit's yachting fraternity.

146 Yachts Racing on Lake Michigan, courtesy of the Chicago Yacht Club

THE MACKINAC RACE

THE supreme effort of the amateur yachtsmen on the Great Lakes is the Mackinac race. First sailed in 1898, it became a regular event on the calendar of the Chicago Yacht Club in 1904. The three hundred and thirty mile cruise from Chicago to the straits of Mackinac is open to all classes and types from the big topsail sloop and the racing schooner to the fine-lined cutter and the knockabout. It is designed to be and has been in the past more than a mere test of speed. The contestants are sportsmen who find an incomparable thrill in the rigorous discipline of the sea, the craftsmanship of the able skipper, the matching of skill with skill, and the pitting of human wit against the wind's will. The very destination is rich in memories of earlier boatmen. Mackinac Island — here came LeGriffin, envoy of La Salle; the *voyageurs* of the early trading companies made it their rendezvous; its waters were filled each spring with the canoes of trappers and traders in the days when the Hudson Bay Company ruled the neighboring wilderness. Today it is the goal of the racing cruise which best preserves the fine traditions of the pioneers with sail and paddle.

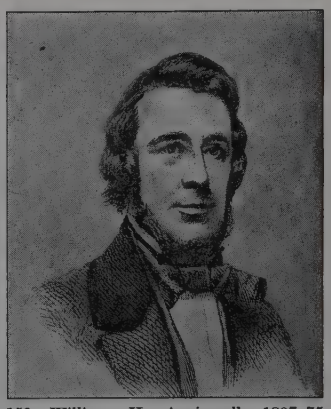
147 The start of the Mackinac Race from Chicago, courtesy of the Chicago Yacht Club

148 Yachts in the Mackinac Race, courtesy of the Chicago Yacht Club

149 The *Quickstep*, 1891, from a photograph in the New York Public Library

THE SOLITARY CRUISER

For the truly Corinthian yachtsman there are two factors of importance in the sport: the contest of brain and hand in racing, and the constant strife with the elements in cruising. There can be few experiences more exhilarating than to hold the tiller for an hour in an exciting thrash to windward, but an equally fine aspect of yachting is the cruise of the solitary craft ready for every whim of sea and sky. Whether it be on the bays and inlets of the seacoast or the more secluded reaches of some inland lake, the rewards are equally great. Alone, or with a few kindred souls, far from the competition of the race, the skipper may steep himself in the delights of sailing for its own sake. His is the joy of controlling the force of wind and wave; of compelling the elements to do his bidding; or, if they serve him ill, of finding a means to meet the emergency. For the solitary cruiser there are no more attractive regions than the favorite cruising areas of the Great Lakes. In the lower district there is Put-in-Bay on Lake Erie, which has not entirely lost the charm of days before lake traffic became so dense. The upper lakes offer the beauty and romance of Mackinac or the alluring solitude of Georgian Bay. In these and a score of other waters the modern yachtsman may find the satisfaction of both the open sea and the intriguing shore.



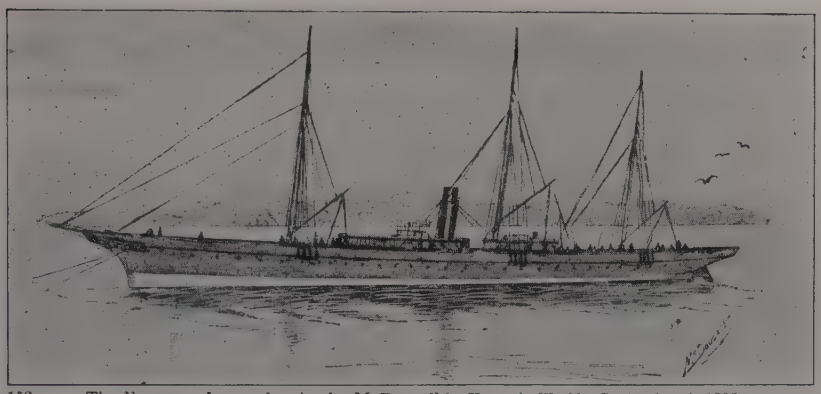
150 William H. Aspinwall, 1807–75, from a drawing after a photograph, in *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, January 1859

STEAM REPLACES SAIL

The Corinthian yachtsmen of the early days were sailors who loved their yachts as a means of commanding and controlling the power of the sea. To them sailing their own ships was the essence of the sport. The substitution for sails of some mechanical propulsion would eliminate the element of uncertainty, the poetry of motion, and the interest in wind and wave, which were their chief delights. Consequently, it was not the yachtsman but the man interested in steam navigation who first applied engine power to pleasure craft. Cornelius Vanderbilt, whose title of Commodore came from his ownership and operation of a profitable packet fleet, built what he was pleased to call a steam yacht in 1853. In reality the *North Star* was a side-wheel passenger steamer of two thousand tons. At the same time William H. Aspinwall, the prominent New York merchant, converted his experimental steamer, *Firefly*, into a yacht, but not until a decade later did Leonard W. Jerome build the screw steamer, *Clarita*, which became a model for the cruisers of a later day. In 1873 the register of the New York Yacht Club showed only nine steam yachts, with scarcely a dozen more listed by clubs in other parts of the country. Of this number the largest was Aspinwall's *Day Dream*, christened in 1871 and long famous for its powerful high-pressure engines.

151 The *Day Dream*, from a photograph by Stebbins, Boston

THE PALACE YACHT



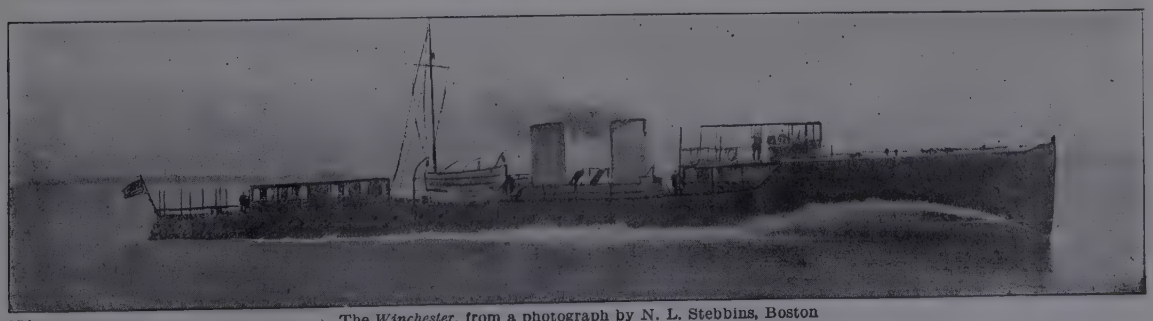
152 The *Namouna*, from a drawing by McDougall in *Harper's Weekly*, September 4, 1892

During the decade after the centennial year John and Nathaniel Herreshoff began to specialize in the construction of steam craft. From their yards came representatives of all types from the shapely undecked launches of less than forty feet with hot and fussy little engines amidships to the seagoing yachts of elegant appointments, equipped to withstand the vicissitudes of a long ocean voyage. Between the two extremes were the long and narrow express yachts with light, beautifully built hulls and the coastwise cruisers of moderate beam with overhanging bow and stern, the most popular type for long cruises. In the early 'eighties comfort as well as speed was a primary objective and palatial craft were designed for men and women of wealth. James Gordon Bennett's *Namouna* was the subject of extravagant praise for the symmetry of its lines and the sumptuousness of its appointments. The *Atalanta*, owned by George J. Gould, was more powerful but not more beautiful than the ship in which Bennett cruised the Atlantic Coast, crossed the ocean, and visited those European waters into which the whim of the moment led him.

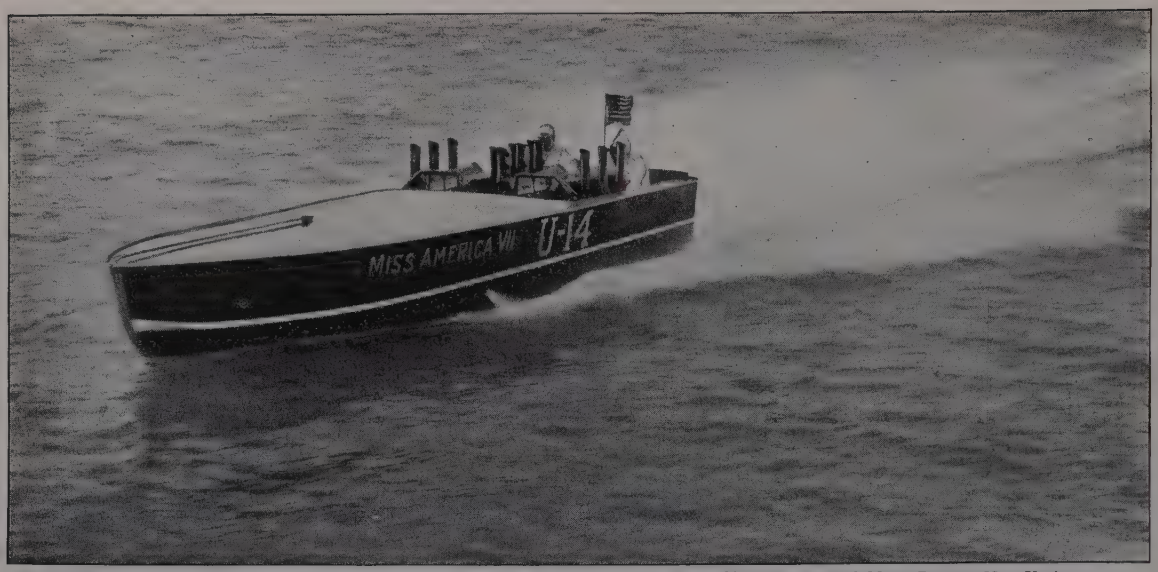
153 The *Atalanta* (in the center), from a drawing by Fred S. Cozzens, 1883, courtesy of Nat Fleischer, New York

THE VOGUE OF STEAMERS

For a score of years after 1890 the registers of many of the eastern yacht clubs showed a rapid increase in the number of power boats and a decline in the list of sailing craft. The big wind-jammers, single-stickers and schooners, were no longer popular with wealthy men of the coast cities. In spite of the Corinthian racing in the smaller one-design classes there was a growing demand for the steam yacht intended for the summer cruises on Long Island Sound, trips to and from the fashionable resorts along the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. Shipyards turned to the construction of ships equally notable for their commodious quarters and their ability to break speed records. Many of the finest of the type were miniature country homes afloat, with all of the conveniences which the week-end guest would expect. In addition there was room for powerful engines which enabled the yacht to make a speed better than twenty knots on its short runs. Capable of equally great speed, but not equipped for the entertainment of guests, were the large launches, some of which were more than seventy-five feet on the water line.



154 The *Winchester*, from a photograph by N. L. Stebbins, Boston

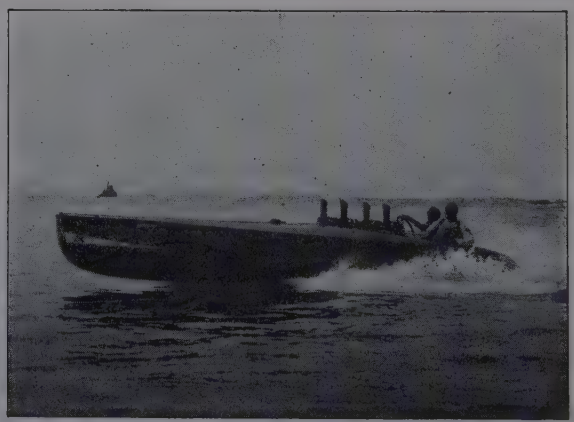


155 The motor boat *Miss America VII*, from a photograph by Morris Rosenfeld, New York, courtesy of *Motor Boating*, New York

THE MOTOR BOAT

The introduction of the naphtha engine in 1885 caused a rapid development in the thirty- and forty-foot launches, but it was the invention of the internal combustion engine, light in weight and compact in form, which made possible the remarkable speed of the motor boat and provided an acceptable auxiliary to sail-power on crafts of various sizes. Shortly after the opening of the twentieth century the "put-put, put-put" of the gasoline engine was heard on bays, rivers, and mountain lakes. The efficiency and convenience of the new power speedily overcame the average sailor's prejudice, with the result that many sailing craft were equipped with auxiliary engines as an insurance against the failure of the wind. Some sentiment was undoubtedly outraged, but in line with the typically American desire to get results there was slight opposition to a change which preserved most of the advantages of sailing and eliminated the disadvantages. In the standard motor boat speed was the only consideration and racing soon became important. Since 1904 there has been an annual competition for the Gold Cup Trophy of the American Power Boat Association, which was first won by Carl Riotte's *Standard* with an average speed of twenty-three and six-tenths miles an hour. Originally run on a handicap basis for the forty-foot class and under, it was made an open race in 1911 and the winners for the next ten years were hydroplanes. A change in the rules in 1922 limited the size of engines and fixed the length of competitors at not less than twenty-five feet. In 1913 *Ankle Deep* passed forty miles an hour as an average, two years later *Miss Detroit* made forty-eight and one-half miles, and in 1920 *Miss America* set the mark at seventy miles. Eight years later Gar Wood's *Miss America VII* attained a speed of 92.83 miles per hour in a special test at Detroit, Michigan.

156 The motor boat *Miss California*, from a photograph by Averett, courtesy of *Motor Boating*, New York



157 The motor boat *Miss Detroit*, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

EARLY ROWING RACES

As the sailing of the sandbag catboat for pleasure developed out of the business of transporting passengers and goods, so the racing of boats propelled by oars was incidental in most communities on the seaboard to the struggle for speed supremacy between rival ferry lines. There was little indication that these occasional brushes between watermen marked the beginning of an important sport, but by the close of the eighteenth century Boston, New York, and Philadelphia were interested in the races between four-oared barges owned by gentlemen who employed professional crews. Although there were no boat clubs or rowing associations to sponsor the contests, the press carried notices of the matches which promised to be exciting. That the "lovers of aquatic sport" viewed the races, appraising the merits of the boats as well as the skill of the oarsmen, is apparent from the communication of June 8, 1811, in the New York *Evening Post*, which announced a race between four-oared boats representing New York and Brooklyn. Later in the same year the intense rivalry between the Long Islanders and New Yorkers resulted in a match between picked crews from the two districts. The event was rowed in rough weather and the *Knickerbocker*, manned by the New York four, increased the fame of its builder, John Baptist, by withstanding the elements much better than the *Invincible* of Long Island. Though the records of these early races are few, a sufficient number exist to indicate a continuing interest in boats and oarsmen. When the *Whitehall*, pride of New Yorkers, defeated the *Richmond*, backed by the Staten Islanders, on the morning of May 20, 1825, more than thirty thousand persons aboard every sort of craft watched the five-mile race from Robbins' Reef to a point off Castle Garden. Nearly as large a crowd, in spite of the inclement weather, had been attracted the previous winter by the contest between four seamen from the English frigate the *Hussar* and the *Whitehall* men. This first international rowing race on December 9, 1824, was an easy victory for the Americans in their famous barge the *American Star*. Used as an excursion boat on the occasion of Lafayette's visit to this country the *American Star* was later sent to the French nobleman as a token of respect from the oarsmen of New York.

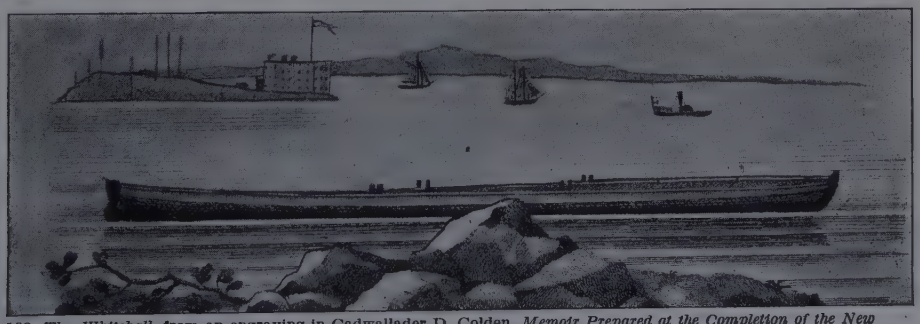
COMMUNICATIONS.

Boat Race.—A match race will be rowed on Monday, between the boat owned by the proprietors of the Mercantile Advertiser built by Mr. *John Baptist*, and another boat owned by Mr. Snyder, built by Mr. *John Chambers*, which plys between Fly Market and Brooklyn. The boats are to start from Powles Hook, precisely at two o'clock, and row to the new dock at White-Hall, with four men and a setter in each. From the known celebrity of the builders of these boats, the lovers of Aquatic Sport, may anticipate much gratification.

158 Notice of an early race, from the New York *Evening Post*, June 8, 1811

Aquatick Sport.—The boat-race between the boats *Whitehall* and *Richmond* for $1000 aside, took place this morning at 10 o'clock, and was won by the former by about forty yards. They started from Robins' reef, near the Quaratine ground, and rowed to a stake boat, anchored opposite Castle Garden, in the North River. The distance near five miles, which was performed in about 30 minutes. The day was extremely fine, and the water smooth. It was calculated that from thirty to forty thousand persons were on the spot. The bay was literally covered with steam boats, sail boats, and row boats. The names of the oarsmen in the winning boat, *Whitehall*, are Cornelius Cammeyer, Alfred Cammeyer, brothers, Richard Robins and Charles Beatough; coxswain, John Magnis. In the Staten-Island boat, *Richmond*,—Abr'm Braisted, Jacob Braisted, Arthur Simonson and Jacob Van Pelt; coxswain, John Palmerton.

159 Notice of race between the *Whitehall* and the *Richmond*, from the New York *Evening Post*, May 20, 1825



160 The *Whitehall*, from an engraving in Cadwallader D. Colden, *Memoir Prepared at the Completion of the New York Canals*, New York, 1825

161 Scull Race between William Decker and James Lee from the Battery to Bedloe's Island and back, from *Gleason's Pictorial*, August 16, 1851

AMATEUR CLUBS AND REGATTAS

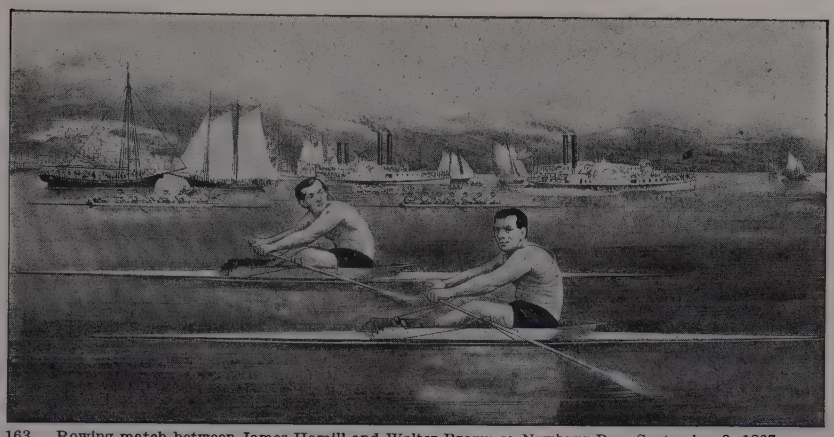
During the second quarter of the century the formation of boat clubs and rowing associations became epidemic. Wherever a group of oarsmen acquired a lap-streak gig, a light barge, or a four-oared Whitehall boat, there was apt to be an organization formed for racing purposes. Though Boston, New York, and Philadelphia were the principal centers of activity, the amateur clubs were not confined to the Atlantic seaboard. As early as 1839 the Detroit Boat Club held its first race and became the rowing capital of the Great Lakes district. Five years earlier a number of New York clubs formed the first rowing association, called the Castle Garden Amateur Boat Club Association, that there might be a more regular control over the regattas in New York harbor. Soon there were meetings at Newburgh, Poughkeepsie, and other points on the Hudson in which crews of four and eight, as well as single scullers, participated. On the Schuylkill the crews, which in 1858 formed the Schuylkill Navy, furnished excellent races for Philadelphians, while the six-oared boats on the Charles River attracted thousands from Boston and vicinity.

THE WARD BROTHERS

In the three decades following 1850 professional contests were much more numerous than they have been at any time since. Though most of the races were for single or double sculls, the regattas in the East also included four-oared barges, six-oared lap-streak gigs, and later the eight-oared shell. No watermen of that period were more famous than the Ward brothers of Newburgh, New York. In 1858 "Josh" Ward appeared on the Hudson in the first of a long series of victories as a single sculler. With his brothers Gilbert, Henry, and Ellis, he formed a four-oared crew which set the pace and maintained its lead in practically every race it entered. Their chief rivals during the 'sixties were the Biglin brothers, but the Wards retained their supremacy as late as 1871. Ellis Ward, like his brother "Josh," was a great single sculler, but he never succeeded in overcoming the powerful stroke of John Biglin.

162 The Ward Brothers, from left to right, Gilbert, Ellis, Joshua, Henry, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, September 30, 1871

CHAMPION SCULLERS



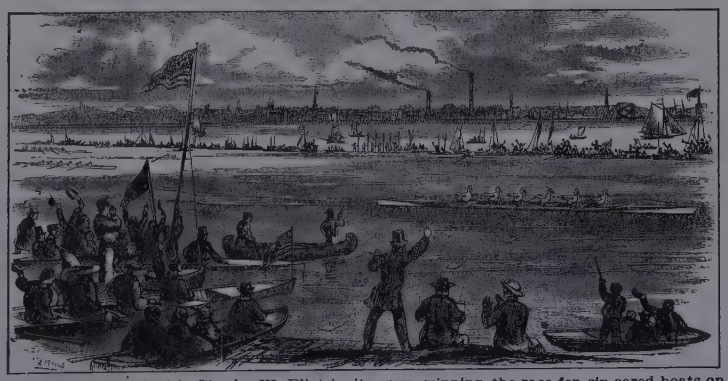
163 Rowing match between James Hamill and Walter Brown at Newburg Bay, September 9, 1867, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, New York, 1867, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries

THE decade of the 'seventies was the heyday of the single sculler. No other period in the history of American rowing has been characterized by the brilliant performances of so many first-class scullers. From an earlier day "Josh" Ward, John Biglin, and James Hamill continued their victories. On the Hudson, the Schuylkill, and the Charles the names of Walter Brown, Evan Morris, and James Ten Eyck were becoming well known. Charles Courtney and W. B. Curtis were still amateurs, though strongly tempted to join the ranks of the professionals. In the centennial year the skill of the great Canadian, Edward Hanlan, was praised throughout the nation, and there are many who still claim that no superior to the Toronto sculler has ever appeared. For eight years after his impressive victories at the Philadelphia Exposition he was the recognized champion of the world. In the next generation American amateurs were honored at home and abroad. Edward Hanlan Ten Eyck won the Diamond sculls at Henley in 1897, while Frank Greer and C. S. Titus were setting new records for the shorter distances on American courses. A quarter century later Walter Hoover duplicated Ten Eyck's victory in England and also won the title of world's champion sculler. Many of the skilled oarsmen of the earlier days were instrumental in improving the rowing technique in the colleges of the country. Yale occasionally called upon James Hamill in the last weeks before a race, while Cornell found a genius in Charles Courtney. Syracuse rose to power under the shrewd guidance of James Ten Eyck, and it was Edward Hanlan Ten Eyck who bore a hand in the emergence of Wisconsin crews.

164 Edward Hanlan, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

A COLLEGE ROWING CLUB

THE growing interest in rowing was reflected in collegiate circles in the spring of 1843, when William J. Weeks, of the class of 1844 at Yale, brought to New Haven a four-oared Whitehall boat of the type used in New York harbor. With several associates he formed the first college rowing club in the country. The following year a six-oared racer, the *Excelsior*, was purchased for the use of the club in its matches with New Haven oarsmen. In the autumn of the same year members of the class of 1846 at Harvard acquired a barge which they christened *Oneida*. Lacking collegiate competition they participated in regattas on the Charles with other amateur crews, a practice which they continued even after intercollegiate races were scheduled.



165 The *Harvard* with Charles W. Eliot in its crew, winning the race for six-oared boats on the Charles River, June 19, 1858, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 3, 1858

166 Lake Winnepesaukee in 1849, from an engraving in the *Ladies National Magazine*, August 1849

THE FIRST INTERCOLLEGIATE RACE

The first boat race between Harvard and Yale developed out of the desire of James N. Elkins, general superintendent of the Boston, Concord and Montreal Railroad, to advertise the transportation system with which he was connected. He persuaded a friend of his at Yale to start an agitation for a rowing contest with Harvard to be held on Lake Winnepesaukee in the summer of 1852. Elkins promised that if the arrangements were made he would run excursion trains to the scene of the race and would provide an observation train overlooking the designated course for the rival crews. Yale took three crews. The race was rowed in eight-oared barges over a two-mile course. Neither crew had practiced much and the barges were built to withstand rough weather rather than to secure speed. Each eight used a short, quick stroke, which in the sprint at the finish reached a count of almost fifty to the minute. Franklin Pierce, Democratic nominee for the presidency, was among the thousands who witnessed Harvard's victory. Three years later the two colleges raced down the Connecticut River at Springfield over a three-mile course and the victory again went to the Cambridge men who had been practicing on the Charles.

THE HARVARD CREW OF 1858

The Harvard crew of 1858 had the opportunity of racing in one of the first six-oared shells in the country. Prior to 1856 the racing boats had been clinker-built; after that date the smooth skin boat was introduced and distributed widely. Harvard's shell was built in 1857 at St. Johns, New Brunswick, as an experimental step in the development of speedier craft. Somewhat shorter and wider than the modern shell, it was constructed of white pine and was equipped with iron outriggers to give greater leverage. The crew was worthy of the improved boat, for it gave convincing evidence of marked superiority over its competitors. In the Charles River regatta of June 1858, it rowed in splendid form, finishing the course two minutes ahead of its nearest rival. Prominent in the victorious crew were the Crowninshield brothers, members of the famous yachting family, and Charles W. Eliot, later chosen president of the university for which he had pulled an oar while a tutor in mathematics. All credit in those days was due the men who rowed. There was seldom a coach to supervise training and outline strategy for the races. The stroke set the pace and generally directed the rowing routine, while the bow oarsmen performed the coxswain's function of steering by means of ropes or wires attached to the rudder and controlled by his feet. No member of the crew was ever sure of his place in the boat, for at any time an aspiring oarsman might challenge for a position, the relative merits of the rivals frequently being determined by placing them in a gig to see which could outpull the other.

167 The Harvard Crew, June 1858, from a photograph in the Records of the Class of 1858, Harvard College Library

ON LAKE QUINSIGAMOND

In 1859 the College Union Regatta Association was formed by the rowing clubs at Harvard, Yale, Brown and Trinity. The following year the first races of the new organization were rowed near Worcester, Massachusetts, on Lake Quinsigamond. Harvard and Yale proved superior to their opponents, with Harvard winning both in 1860 and 1861. The regatta was temporarily abandoned during the war years, but in 1864 Yale challenged Harvard with the result that contests were resumed at Worcester on Lake Signal. For the next seven years the two colleges met regularly with freshmen and sophomore crews, as well as the varsity sixes, competing for honors. Only twice in this period of competition did Yale succeed in crossing the line ahead of the Cambridge crew, a fact due quite as much to the care with which Harvard selected its shell and rigged it as to the superior oarsmanship of the Crimson. The college crews also participated in the event of the second day when the "citizens regatta" permitted prominent amateurs and professionals to enter the races.

Boston and Worcester Railroad.

SPECIAL TRAINS

TO LAKE SIGNAL FOR THE

REGATTAS

JULY 29 & 30.

On Friday the contest will be between the Sophomore and University Classes of Harvard and Yale Colleges, and on Saturday it will be the "Citizens Regatta."

Cars will be run between the Foster Street Station and Lake Signal, as follows:

FRIDAY.

FROM FOSTER ST.		FROM SIGNAL	
1st Train.	1:50 p. m.	1st Train.	4:50 p. m.
2d "	2:25 "	2d "	5:30 p. m.
3d "	3:05 "	3d "	6:10 p. m.

SATURDAY.

1st Train.	8:45 a. m.	1st Train.	12:30 p. m.
2d "	9:25 a. m.	2d "	1:10 p. m.
3d "	10:00 a. m	3d "	1:45 p. m.

168 Railroad Poster for the Worcester Regatta, 1864, from the original in the gymnasium, Yale University

THE ROWING ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES

By 1870 intercollegiate regattas had become merely a meeting between Harvard and Yale, but there were many rowing clubs in other eastern schools anxious to participate. Accordingly a new association was formed for the purpose of securing a larger representation of college crews at the annual races. Amherst, Columbia, Harvard, Wesleyan and Yale were particularly active, but many other crews were represented during the five regattas prior to 1876. Most of the contests were over a three-mile straightaway course on the Connecticut River near Springfield or on the lake at Saratoga. In 1875 a regatta at the latter place was attended by sixteen crews, which necessitated racing in heats. The following year Yale and Harvard withdrew from the association on the plea that it had become unwieldy. As a result of this withdrawal the Rowing Association of American Colleges declined until 1883, when it was reorganized as the Intercollegiate Rowing Association with seven eastern clubs as charter members. The thrill of their annual contests drew thousands of spectators who added to the magnitude of the pageant.

169 The Crew of Amherst College, 1872, from a drawing in *The Aquatic Monthly*, August 1872

170 Finish of a Yale-Harvard race, New London, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

THE HARVARD-YALE RACES

With the withdrawal of Harvard and Yale from the regular intercollegiate regatta a series of annual races between the two colleges was inaugurated for eight-oared boats over a four-mile straightaway course. Since 1878 the contest has been held on the Thames River near New London, Connecticut, becoming in recent years one of the most important events in the national program of amateur rowing. In the early days the crews of both institutions were largely under the influence of English racing methods, though there were marked differences between the two countries in the rig of the shell. After the sliding seat was invented by Walter Brown, the single sculler, and used first by Yale in 1870, the tendency was toward a long body swing and short slide, the combination which became characteristic of the best English crews. Later Harvard and Yale considerably lengthened the slide thus reducing the necessity for an exaggerated body swing. In English-rigged shells the seats were alternated down the sides of the boat, a shorter outrigger giving the necessary leverage. This seating was never popular in the United States, since it required too nice a balancing of the crew. Instead, the seats were placed in the center over the keel and longer outriggers were used. American practice also differed in the rigging of the oars, for while the British clung to the stationary rowlock, Harvard, Yale and other crews in this country developed the swivel rowlock to give greater security.

THE AMATEUR COACH

The crews which participated in the first college regattas rarely had the benefit of intensive training under a professional coach. Occasionally the Harvard and Yale clubs secured the services of a veteran oarsman for a brief period, but preparation for the races was apt to be a matter for the crew to work out alone. Frequently the captain of the previous year volunteered his services for a few weeks before the spring competition began. If his advice and aid resulted in victory, the successive crews of his Alma Mater regarded his presence as a matter of course. Thus the graduate coach, an amateur oarsman who gave all the time he could spare from other interests, became the rowing expert at most of the colleges which participated in the sport. His place was not taken by the professional coach until the early years of the twentieth century. Yale was particularly fortunate during the régime of amateur coaching. From his freshman year in 1872, when he earned a place on the varsity six, for thirty years Robert J. Cook was an active counsellor of the men who raced on the Thames. During the decade after 1886 his influence on Yale crews was most pronounced and his victories over Harvard were most impressive. He was but one of many enthusiasts who placed college rowing on a high plane.

171 Robert J. Cook, from a drawing in *The Daily Graphic*, New York, July 23, 1874

172 Crews lined up before the start of the Childs Cup Race, June 19, 1885, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

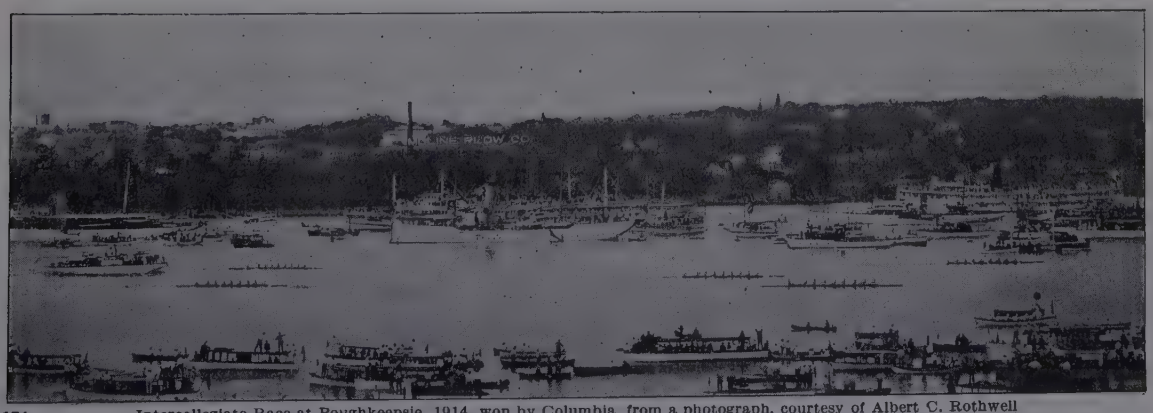
THE CHILDS CUP

173 George W. Childs, 1829–94, from an engraving after a photograph in *The Ladies Home Journal*

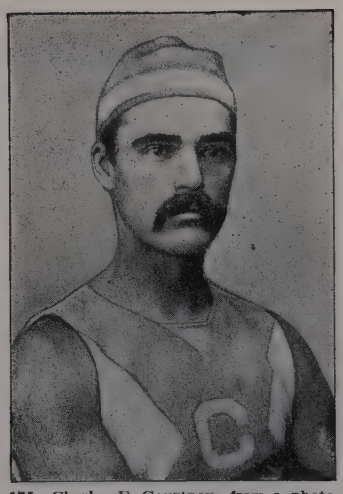
While Yale and Harvard were experimenting with new methods in the hope of developing speed and power for their annual meetings at New London, the other college crews in the East were racing under varying regatta arrangements. In 1879 George W. Childs of Philadelphia presented a challenge cup for competition by four-oared boats between Pennsylvania, Princeton, and Columbia. The first race was won by Pennsylvania on June 24, 1879, over the Schuylkill course, which remained the scene of the event for a decade. Since 1889 the races have been rowed in eights on Carnegie Lake at Princeton, the Harlem River course in New York, or the Schuylkill River. In recent years Cornell and the United States Naval Academy have participated in the competition by invitation, on several occasions carrying off the trophy.

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE ROWING ASSOCIATION

After 1883 the regattas of the Intercollegiate Rowing Association were the most representative gatherings of college crews in the country. In the early races Bowdoin, Columbia, Cornell, Princeton, Rutgers, Pennsylvania, and Wesleyan took a prominent part, but the membership of the association was constantly changing. Most of the crews regarded the intercollegiate competition at Saratoga or on the Hudson as the climax of the season of dual and triangular meets. In 1895 Columbia, Cornell, and Pennsylvania took the initiative in establishing the race on the Hudson at Poughkeepsie over a four-mile course for varsity eights. Special two-mile events were arranged for freshman and junior varsity crews as preliminaries to the main race. During the last quarter century the Poughkeepsie regatta has brought the best western crews into competition with their eastern rivals. Wisconsin has frequently been represented, while Stanford, Washington and California have been conspicuous contenders for the Varsity Challenge Cup. In the six races ending in 1928 Washington crossed the line first on three occasions, and still another western triumph was scored by California in 1928 when it defeated Columbia in a gruelling contest, both crews breaking the record time for the course established by Cornell in 1901. Notably brilliant in recent years has been the performance of Yale crews coached by Edward Leader, who learned the art of rowing at the University of Washington. Their greatest rivals for national honors have been Washington and California, the former under "Rusty" Callow and the latter after Ky Ebright assumed leadership.



174 Intercollegiate Race at Poughkeepsie, 1914, won by Columbia, from a photograph, courtesy of Albert C. Rothwell



175 Charles E. Courtney, from a photograph, courtesy of Charles V. P. Young

CHARLES E. COURTNEY, 1849–1920

In the autumn of 1868 the little village of Aurora, in Cayuga County, New York, was the scene of a rowing regatta which attracted the amateur oarsmen of the neighborhood. Among the entrants in the single sculls event was a youth of nineteen from Union Springs near the head of Lake Cayuga. He brought with him a boat of his own construction, which appeared so crude and unwieldy beside the trim craft of his competitors that he felt like withdrawing from the race. Enraged by the laughter of the spectators, however, he determined to prove that a good sculler could overcome the handicap of a poor boat. He won his event with ease. Thus began the racing career of Charles E. Courtney, one of the finest oarsmen that the country ever produced. During the next few years as an amateur he entered eighty-eight races without suffering a single defeat. Then he turned professional, losing only seven contests of the thirty-nine which he rowed. His greatest race was in 1878 against the Canadian single sculler, Edward Hanlan, who defeated him by a few inches. The years of his professional career were not happy for Courtney, and he turned with keen anticipation in 1883 to a coaching position at Cornell. With the exception of one brief interlude he remained at Ithaca as crew coach until 1916. During his régime victory became Cornell's habit. In the two decades after 1895, for instance, he sent fifty-nine crews, both varsity and freshman, to Saratoga Lake and Poughkeepsie. They won thirty-nine of their races, the great crew of 1901 setting the mark of eighteen minutes, fifty-three and one-fifth seconds, for the four-mile course on the Hudson. Much was written of the "Courtney stroke," though the Cornell mentor always insisted that he did not adhere to any set formula in preparing his crews. A long succession of Cornell victories, however, indicated that the fundamentals of a definite system were learned by the men who rowed on Lake Cayuga. Certain characteristics always appeared; the moderate body swing with back straight, the strong leg drive, and the quick recovery.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION

American crews have competed occasionally with British oarsmen both in dual meets and at the famous Henley regatta. In 1869 Harvard challenged Oxford, and was accepted on condition that the race be rowed in four-oared boats over the Thames course from Putney to Mortlake. Defeated in this venture Harvard's desire for foreign competition seems to have waned, for it was not until 1906 that another Harvard crew visited England. Cambridge was the antagonist, and one of the best eights that had rowed for the Crimson in many a day lost to the English crew by two lengths. At intervals of varying length Americans have entered the Henley Regatta for the Grand Challenge Cup. Two years after the London Rowing Club had participated in the centennial regatta at Philadelphia the Columbia varsity four won the Visitors' Cup at Henley. In 1887 the Cornell varsity four rowed an excellent but unsuccessful race on the Thames, while the following year the Hillsdale crew lost only because of an accident to the bow oarsman. In 1895 one of Courtney's crack crews from Cornell followed Cambridge across the line. In the next decade three unsuccessful attempts were made for the Grand Challenge Cup: Yale in 1896, Pennsylvania in 1901, and the Vesper Boat Club of Philadelphia in 1905. Considerable questioning of the amateur standing of the last contestant led to a decision that the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen must vouch for future entrants in the Thames regatta.

176 The finish of the Harvard-Oxford race, 1869, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, September 4, 1869

177 Navy Crew, 1920, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

OLYMPIC CHAMPIONS

THE initial victory of an American eight, after rowing was added to the program of the Olympic games, was won by the United States Naval Academy crew at Antwerp in 1920. With superb form and exceptional power the men in the American shell were worthy representatives of the system which Richard J. Glendon had established at Annapolis. Four years later one of the greatest of Leader's Yale crews conquered the best European amateurs in the Olympic contests at Paris. In 1928 it seemed that another powerful eight from New Haven would represent the United States at Amsterdam, but California came across the continent, won the Poughkeepsie regatta, triumphed over Yale by a quarter of a length in the Olympic trial races, and won for America at the Olympics.

178 Yale Crew, 1924, from a photograph, courtesy of the Yale Athletic Association

179 The California Crew, 1928, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

180 Charles E. Courtney in his coaching launch, courtesy of the Department of Public Information, Cornell University

THE STROKE

The appearance of American eights at Henley was the occasion for a spirited discussion of the respective merits of the English and American strokes. Some British experts were extremely critical of American oarsmen. They insisted that our stroke lacked accent and beat, that it was too short for speed, that it sacrificed swing of the body for slide of the seat and that the recovery was in most instances too slow. As a matter of fact the two strokes were not as vastly different as a few of the sports writers insisted. Their salient points were essentially the same, any differences arising out of the respective methods of combining and applying power and weight. Although much scientific experimentation can be done before the perfect stroke is attained, certain principles are now well established. The best grip of the hands on the oar is a natural one with the outermost hand on the end of the oar, and the other some four inches away. The catch, which is the contact of water and oar blade at the beginning of the stroke, should be made quickly, but not jerkily, by reversing the swing of the body and quickly raising the hands, the oar blade entering the water at right angles with the surface. With the catch the trunk of the body is thrown upward and backward to an angle not less than forty-five degrees with the keel of the boat. The leg drive is adjusted to the body swing throughout the pull. The oars are pulled into the chest and at the finish the hands are dropped down and outward vigorously. At the same time the wrists are turned toward the body to feather the oar blade and the body is snapped back into upright position ready for the next forward reach.

THE STROKE OAR

One of the most vital factors in the success of any crew is the temperament and ability of the man who pulls the stroke oar. He should know the pace to set for his men which will produce the best results. He must be able to get off the starting line quickly with a high beat, but he must also know when to lower the count enough to hold his rivals through the middle distance, at the same time reserving power for the final spurt. The ideal stroke oar senses what his opponents are doing and promptly chooses the best means of counteracting their strategy. In the opinion of Coach Richard J. Glendon few stroke oars of recent years have so nearly approached the ideal as Clyde King of the 1920 Naval Academy crew, who stroked his shell to victory in the Olympics. Almost equally adept was Eric Lambert of the Columbia crews of 1927 and 1928.

181 Coach Richard J. Glendon, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF AMATEUR OARSMEN

182 Duluth Boat Club Senior Eight, 1915, from a photograph, courtesy of the Duluth Boat Club

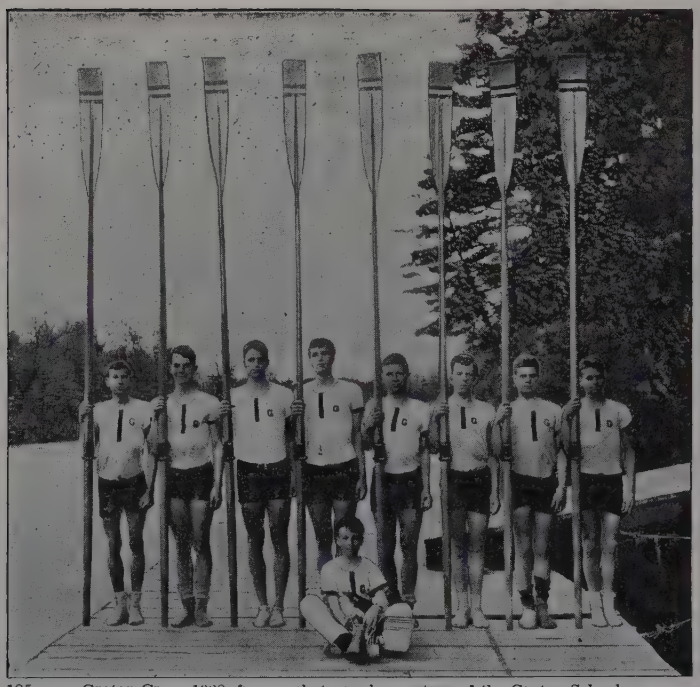
Outside of college circles amateur rowing in the United States is under the jurisdiction of the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen, which held its first regatta in June 1872. For fifty-six years it has been the unifying influence among the amateurs of the country, including in its membership boat clubs and rowing associations from Boston to San Francisco and from Duluth to Jacksonville. Originally formed to define the amateur status and to control racing rules, it has remained with a few lapses from discretion the guardian and guide of the non-professional. Its regattas, which have carried excellent boat racing into all parts of the nation, offer an opportunity for competition in a variety of events. The programs usually include single sculls, double sculls, four-oar and eight-oar crews, as well as special weight classes in the fours and eights. The Association did much to popularize the eight-oar crew in the 'seventies, when the intercollegiate regattas were normally between crews of six with a coxswain. For many years the eastern clubs, especially those in Philadelphia and New York, dominated the regattas, but their supremacy was challenged by such western organizations as the Duluth, Wyandotte and Detroit boat clubs, each of which has won signal victories in the last two decades. Duluth deserves a major share of the credit for promoting amateur rowing in the Middle West.

183 Freshman Crew of the University of Pennsylvania on the Schuylkill, 1928, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

184 Annual Regatta of the American Rowing Association on the Schuylkill, 1928, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE AMERICAN HENLEY

At the opening of the twentieth century there was great dissatisfaction in the ranks of the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen. Charges were frequently made, and widely credited, that the blight of professionalism and commercialism had fallen upon the organization's activities. In 1903 a group of amateurs, determined to preserve in this country the spirit which had always characterized English rowing on the Thames, formed the American Rowing Association and selected the course on the Schuylkill at Philadelphia as the American Henley. For a quarter century its regattas have attracted outstanding oarsmen to participate in a well-balanced program of events. Particularly noteworthy has been the encouragement given to young rowers by the races arranged for junior and scholastic eights.



185 Groton Crew, 1928, from a photograph, courtesy of the Groton School

SCHOLASTIC ROWING

Only one out of one hundred boys entering the colleges of the United States has received any preliminary training as an oarsman, yet rowing is not neglected by the preparatory schools which are favorably situated for the development of water sports. In imitation of the colleges eastern academies and high schools after 1880 included rowing in their programs of intra-mural as well as inter-scholastic competition. St. Paul's School at Concord, New Hampshire, and Groton School near Boston have been pioneers in developing skilled oarsmen under a system which minimizes inter-scholastic competition and encourages the participation of the bulk of the students in the regattas of the school clubs. Likewise, Boston has promoted rowing in the public high schools, occasionally sending four-oared and eight-oared crews to the American Henley on the Schuylkill or to the regattas of the National Association of Amateur Oarsmen. Although there were fewer than fifteen preparatory schools in 1922 which engaged in interscholastic races, many others recognized in intra-mural activity the benefits of the rigorous training which produces the expert oarsman.

BOATING AND CANOEING

Rowing like yachting is not dependent upon competition to give zest to the sport. Long before the day of formal races boating excursions and short canoe trips were popular with those who never expected to become expert boatmen. The same attraction exists today. There is a sense of satisfaction arising from the mastery of any craft, whether it be the slow flat-bottomed row boat or the swift, slender canoe, which both men and women enjoy. The universality of its appeal is evident not only in the number of participants and craft on mountain lake and inland river, but also in the thousands who ply their rented oars on artificial ponds in city parks. Many are skilled amateurs; others are revealed as mere apprentices in the oarsmen's guild, but for them the apprenticeship is a pleasure even though it may not lead to the highest proficiency. If sport is for the participant rather than the spectator, who shall say that the colorful regatta with its cheering thousands is more significant than the countless novices throughout the country correcting awkward strokes, learning the secret of speed, and gaining a mastery over their craft through the cumulative lessons of experience.

186 A picnic on the Wissahickon, from a lithograph in the possession of the publishers

CHAPTER IV

ANGLERS AND NIMRODS

FROM the time of the first settlements of Europeans along the Atlantic coast line, Americans have been an out-of-door people. The land to which they came compelled them to live and work in the open. In the shadow of a virgin forest they set about the simple, but fundamental, tasks of empire building: erecting their cabins in woodland clearings, breaking ground with primitive tools to plant their small acreage, following game trails in search of food and furs, defending themselves against the ever-present menace of the Indian. For generations most of them remained farmers and seamen, either pushing the frontier line westward in their search for the retreating fur trade and new lands, or else following the pull of the sea in fishing ketch and trading caravel. Hunters they were, but their excursions into the forest were not solely for pleasure. Of fishing they could speak with authority, yet few of them in the early days qualified as gentlemen anglers.

Everywhere along the continually shifting frontier this out-of-door life persisted into the nineteenth century. In older communities, however, the opening years of the new century brought a significant change. The clanking of machines was heard; factories arose to house intricate mechanical devices; steam began to replace water power in turning the machines. Industrialism was winning its first victories and the young nation was groping its way along strange paths. With machine industry came the large city, and thousands of factory hands and office workers crowded indoors that they might be near the sources of employment. To a rapidly increasing proportion of Americans the out-of-doors became a memory of youthful pleasures, now too costly to be enjoyed. Yet the very forces of industrialization and urbanization, which had imposed the restrictions of indoor life, also aided in the city dweller's escape. Accumulating wealth and increasing leisure offered to some an opportunity to spend more time in the open. At the same time developing steamboat and railroad transportation rendered forest, mountain, and lake more easily accessible.

One phase of the movement was a considerable increase in the hunters and fishermen, who sought woods and streams in pursuit of their favorite game. To boys and men of the countryside, who regarded sport with rod and gun as a matter of course, were added sportsmen recruited from counting house and textile mill, from bank and lawyer's office. Before the middle of the century this advance guard was small, but it indicated the army to come. In the quarter century after the Civil War, its ranks swelled to unbelievable proportions, invading every accessible portion of the nation. Many at first knew not the meaning of sportmanship; some never learned. As anglers and nimrods, they too often destroyed unnecessarily the game with which nature had so lavishly endowed the great preserves over which they hunted and the streams and lakes in which they fished. In time, however, they saw their mistake and became a decisive factor in preserving the wild life of the nation for future generations. Nor was the slaughter of bird and beast the only side of the story. These hunters and fishermen, asserting their natural preference for the out-of-doors, brought back to the city a freshness of spirit, a newness of viewpoint and a store of information which affected the life of the group only slightly less than that of the individual sportsman.

187 Trout fishing, from an engraving in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, June 1843

THE CULT OF IZAAK WALTON

During the first half of the nineteenth century hunting, fishing, and trapping were regarded in most sections of the country as occupations rather than as sport, but an increasing minority sought recreation in these activities of forest and stream. In the eastern states gentlemen, inspired by Izaak Walton's *Compleat Angler* or by the enticing commentaries on the contemplative sportsman in American magazines, sallied forth with rod and line to catch the elusive trout. With the excessive anxiety of the novice they went extravagantly equipped for the venture. A full-skirted fustian coat with almost a score of pockets, leather breeches and gaiters, and a pair of stout shoes were indispensable, while a high beaver hat frequently completed the outfit. A patent jointed rod of foreign make, landing net, a basket slung over one shoulder for the fish, and a score of other recommended conveniences made up the angler's armory. The newer disciples of Walton soon learned that fishing the wooded creeks of Pennsylvania, the torrents of the Catskills, and the mountain streams of New England was angling of a different sort than that described by the great master familiar with the margins of quiet English rivulets. Those who overcame the disadvantages of the primeval forest bordering the turgid streams became the exploiters of an angler's domain far richer than any available to their English compeers.

THE SCHUYLKILL FISHING COMPANY

Although fishing as a recreation seldom took a competitive form, associations of kindred spirits were organized to share the enjoyment as well as the trophies of the angler's skill. Such a group was the club known in its official records as the "Schuylkill Fishing Company of the State in Schuylkill." Formed some fifty years after William Penn laid out his city of Philadelphia, the club maintained its headquarters for ninety years on the west bank of the Schuylkill, in a section now forming a part of Fairmount Park. When the construction of a dam at Fairmount destroyed the perch fishing in 1822, the Company united with the Society of Fort St. Davids to build a fishing castle nearer tidewater, where rockfish and perch afforded sport for many years. Each season was opened with an elaborate banquet, every member participating in providing and preparing the repast. The pleasures of the social board were not overlooked by other clubs founded in imitation of the Schuylkill fishermen. In 1830 the Cincinnati Angling Club held its first dinner meeting, listening to discourses on angling and ichthyology after a repast which included a portion of the three hundred bass caught by the members in one day's fishing. Voicing the opinion that "the heart-hardening pursuit of wealth and the strife-engendering devotion to party politics have too long engrossed talents more pleasantly spent in the healthful and cheering exercise of angling," the toastmaster prophesied a rapid increase in the disciples of Izaak Walton throughout the West. His prophecy was fulfilled by the anglers' clubs in Ohio and Indiana during the 'forties.

188 The Castle of the State in Schuylkill, from an engraving in *An Authentic Historical Memoir of the Schuylkill Fishing Company*, Philadelphia, 1830

INVADING THE WILDERNESS

189 Pickerel fishing, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, November 4, 1865

While the forest in the western states was still providing a laborious livelihood from its lumber, its fur-bearing animals, and the fish of its streams, the wilderness areas of the East were slowly being converted into playgrounds for the wealthy. Of initial importance in this process were the sportsmen of rod and gun. Among those who followed competent guides along mountain trails to the favorite haunts of fish and game many were foreign travelers, fishing the Catskill and Adirondack streams, attracted by the beauty of the scenery as well as by the rare opportunity to practice the angler's art. The majority, however, were Americans, chiefly residents of the larger towns seeking more exciting sport than their local streams afforded. Singly or in groups, sometimes as organized expeditions, they invaded the forests from Maine to Pennsylvania, taking their recompense in the contemplation of nature when angling proved unsuccessful. During the years following 1850 associations of anglers were formed, such as the North Woods Walton Club, which exploited the lakes of the Moose River chain in the Adirondacks. Each year after 1857 its members, who were from New York City, Albany, and the Mohawk Valley towns, organized a half dozen expeditions anxious to enjoy fishing under conditions but slightly removed from the primitive. Their successors in the northern woods paid more attention to comfort and equipment.

ON BAY AND INLET

For every adventurous angler who sought mountain streams and lakes for trout and bass, there were scores of fishermen content with the sport afforded by the harbors, bays, and inlets of the Atlantic Coast. In the waters south of Chesapeake Bay fishing with nets and with hook and line had been a diversion of the planters in colonial days. It developed into a sport of importance early in the nineteenth century. In the Georgia and South Carolina inlets, particularly in the vicinity of Port Royal Sound, devil fishing with lances and harpoons furnished an exciting recreation. From Delaware Bay to Florida a variety of game fish were secured by trolling from small boats. Sea trout, red and black snappers, kingfish, and groupers were the most highly prized in those waters where the striped bass was not found. North of Chesapeake Bay the anglers who were fond of shoal water sea fishing considered the striped bass, which ran up the rivers to spawn, the boldest and gamiest of the salt-water species. Less desirable, but none the less sought after, were the bluefish, sea bass, weakfish, sheepsheads, and porgies common to most of the Atlantic coastline. From Maine to Florida small fishing smacks were available for those who enjoyed sea fishing, while as early as 1840 steamers ran daily from New York harbor to the banks off Sandy Hook carrying passengers eager to try for sea bass or porgies. Such sport was, however, in the opinion of the fresh-water sportsmen, a sorry substitute for real angling.

190 Trolling for bluefish off the Highlands, New Jersey, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, 1866, after a drawing by Frances F. Palmer

191 Trout fishing on Long Island, from an engraving in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, January 1839

AN ANGLER'S PARADISE

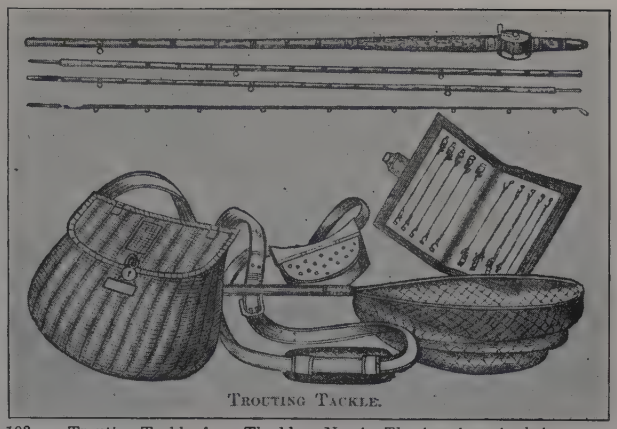
To the anglers of Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey as well as to those who sought its waters from afar Long Island offered a variety of game fish unsurpassed by any other equal area in the country. Its streams, lakes, and adjacent waters could satisfy the most fastidious devotee of fresh-water or sea fishing. In its rivulets the speckled trout, as fine as any in the streams of Maine or the Saint Lawrence Valley, rose to the fly and tested the skill of the expert angler. Perch and pickerel abounded in its ponds to the delight of those who preferred still fishing. From Gowanus Bay to Montauk Point the bays and inlets of the southern shore offered everything from the vigor of the striped bass to the obliging voraciousness of the bluefish. Into shallow water came also the weakfish, the tautog or blackfish, and the less common kingfish. To the fisherman who sought the deeper water the Sound was attractive, with the possibility of snaring the sea bass or the big porgy, if the season was right. But the charm of the Island was the fresh-water fishing. The fame of its trout streams brought many an angler to Jamaica or some other station on the first rail line, whence a coach took him into regions then unspoiled by the hand of man.

WESTERN LAKES AND STREAMS

THE early settlers in the trans-Appalachian region regarded the network of waterways which flowed into the Mississippi or found an outlet in the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence either as facilities for transportation or as the source of an important food supply. Such streams as escaped the flatboats and the river steamers were fished with nets and snares by those more interested in the catch than in the sport of the angler. It was the middle of the nineteenth century before eastern sportsmen learned much of the game fish beyond the mountains or the westerners found sufficient leisure to enjoy the offering of their lakes and rivers. In 1850 Louis Agassiz published his study of Lake Superior, an important contribution to geology and zoölogy, which interested popular writers on angling in the fish of the Great Lakes. Enthusiastic anglers, and occasionally a fishing club, sent glowing accounts to journals in the East. According to these spokesmen for the West there was no finer sport for the skilled angler than hooking the black bass, a game fish equal to the brook trout in boldness and voracity and its superior in the cunning with which it struggled to avoid the consequences of seizing the hook. A determined and active fighter, the black bass was found in abundance in the rivers and lakes west of the Alleghenies, the small-mouthed variety preferring the clear and running streams, while the large-mouthed was content in sluggish waters. Less active and cunning than the bass, but equally bold and voracious, were the yellow perch found in the lakes of the upper Mississippi Valley or in the slow-flowing streams where deep, dark pools abound. To the fresh-water angler, the whole range of the pickerel family from the great northern pike to the small barred species offered exciting sport.

192 Fishing at the falls of the Black River, from a lithograph by A. Sonrel, after a drawing from nature by G. Elliot Cabot, in Louis Agassiz, *Lake Superior*, Boston, 1850

RODS AND REELS



193 Trouting Tackle, from Thaddeus Norris, *The American Angler's Book*, Philadelphia, 1864

To describe the paraphernalia of the American angler in the days when fishing was first becoming recognized sport is impossible. Every community had its peculiar preferences with regard to rod and line. So varied were the methods and devices, even within the confines of the same region, that any attempt at description must be a selection of that which seems to have been most prevalent. There were many who enjoyed good fishing with equipment of their own making. For trout and other light fish a twelve-foot rod of hickory or alder, a line of flax or soaked cotton on a crude reel, and a small hook, and natural bait were sufficient. In the West, where the large pike was considered a great prize, a spruce pole stripped of its bark, a cotton line, well soaked in linseed oil until it had become as tough as rawhide, and ten inches of small chain for a leader, to which was attached a large hook, enabled the fisherman to tire out the most persistent muskellunge. Such equipment, however, did not represent the armory of the really skilled angler. By 1840 he could purchase from American manufacturers rods and lines of excellent workmanship, superior for his purposes to the more expensive apparatus formerly imported from Great Britain. There were special rods for almost every variety of fishing, but the jointed pole of general utility was probably most popular. The butt was of well-seasoned maple, the second joint of ash, the third of hickory, and the tip of lancewood or split-bamboo, carefully spliced. A large reel of hammered brass or German silver, capable of containing one hundred feet of fine line, usually a hair and silk mixture, was indispensable. To the line was attached a tapering leader of silk worm gut which served as a hook-link for one or more artificial flies. For trout fishing rod and line were light and fine, but strong and pliable, while for other angling heavier and coarser materials were frequently used.

194 Home-made Fishing Tackle, from an engraving after a sketch in *Outing*, July 1905

FLY FISHING

For many years angling in the United States was not so scientific as in European countries. Streams were larger, more numerous, and less fished, and the abundance of game fish permitted the use of heavier tackle, which required less skillful manipulation. There were few trained in the art of fly casting during the first half of the nineteenth century, though those who used artificial flies were already disdainful of those who fished with the lowly worm. With the great improvement in artificial flies, and the steady increase in the anglers throughout the country, many learned that landing a trout of three or four pounds with a hook almost invisible on a line like a single hair for fineness, and with a rod of incredible delicacy was an achievement both thrilling and gratifying.

195 Trout flies, from a drawing in Thaddeus Norris, *The American Angler's Book*, Philadelphia, 1864

Sportsmen's Routes.

TO SPORTSMEN:

The Pennsylvania R. R. Co.,

Respectfully invite attention to the.

SUPERIOR FACILITIES

afforded by their lines for reaching most of the TROUTING PARKS and RACE COURSES in the Middle States. These lines being CONTINUOUS FROM ALL IMPORTANT POINTS, avoid the difficulties and dangers of reshipment, while the excellent cars which run over the smooth steel tracks enable STOCK TO BE TRANSPORTED without failure or injury.

THE LINES OF

Pennsylvania Railroad Company

also reach the best localities for

GUNNING AND FISHING

in Pennsylvania and New Jersey. EXCURSION TICKETS are sold at the offices of the Company in all the principle cities to KANE, RENOVA, BEDFORD, CRESSON, RALSTON, MINNEQUA, and other well-known centers for

Trout Fishing, Wing Shooting, and Still Hunting.

196 From an advertisement in *Forest and Stream*, July 17, 1879

THE GROWTH OF ANGLERS' CLUBS

Prior to 1870 the sportsmen of the rod were generally an unorganized group throughout the country. The few fishing clubs which stressed the common interests of all disciples of Izaak Walton enrolled but a small fraction of the fraternity. In the last quarter of the century, however, there was a rapid increase in such societies. Under the name of anglers' associations, and sportsmen's clubs, they appeared in all parts of the country. In the eastern states they were frequently organizations of city dwellers, which maintained clubhouses and accommodations at some distant point convenient to good fishing grounds; in the West they generally represented a local pride in lakes and streams which still afforded excellent sport. As the years passed their membership lists came to include an increasing proportion of non-resident members, who journeyed considerable distances to enjoy the type of angling which they found most satisfying.

"THE FISHING LINE."

TAKE THE

Grand Rapids & Indiana R.R.

Mackinaw, Grand Rapids & Cincinnati Short Line

FOR THE

Trout, Grayling, and Black Bass Fisheries,

AND THE

FAMOUS SUMMER RESORTS AND LAKES

OF

NORTHERN MICHIGAN.

The waters of the

Grand Traverse Region

and the Michigan North Woods are unsurpassed, if equaled, in the abundance and great variety of fish contained.

BROOK TROUT abound in the streams, and the famous AMERICAN GRAYLING is found only in those waters.

The TROUT Season begins May 1 and ends Sept. 1.

The GRAYLING Season opens June 1 and ends Nov. 1.

BLACK BASS, PIKE, PICKEREL and MUSCALONGE, also abound in large numbers in the many lakes and lakelets of this territory.

The sportsman can readily send trophies of his skill to his friends or "club" at home, as ice for packing fish can be had at many points.

TAKE YOUR FAMILY WITH YOU. The sce-

197 From an advertisement in *Forest and Stream*, July 17, 1879

WIDENING THE DOMAIN OF THE ANGLER

The railroad crossing the western prairies, pushing through the passes of the Rockies, and penetrating the northern wilds opened new worlds to the angler. Highways of steel carried sportsmen into regions once regarded as inaccessible, and enabled them to enjoy the sport of any part of the country with no more inconvenience than their ancestors had experienced in fishing the streams of the immediate neighborhood. No longer did the angler remain content with inferior game in lakes and rivers all but depleted of their best stock. He sought the regions where the sport was to his liking. Martin Van Buren was satisfied with the indifferent pickerel fishing in the vicinity of his home at Kinderhook, New York; Grover Cleveland a half century later traveled hundreds of miles to enjoy the best game fish in their favorite haunts. One notable result of this widening of the angler's domain was the revival of interest in Atlantic salmon fishing. This wary migrant, which fights its way up the swiftest streams to spawn, once ranged the Atlantic Coast as far south as the Connecticut and the Hudson, but after the first quarter of the nineteenth century was seldom found south of the Kennebec and the Penobscot. With the development of rail facilities American anglers followed the salmon northward finding rare sport in fishing the streams of northern Maine and New Brunswick. Cautious in rising to the gaudy fly, or any other bait, the salmon displays that vigor, speed and courage which give such zest to the capture of the brook trout and the black bass as compared with the torpid carp and perch. The angler who has once experienced its gameness returns to the waters where he may again enjoy the thrilling struggle to land his prize.

198 Salmon Fishing at Grand Lake Stream, New York, from a photograph by the Boston & Maine R.R.

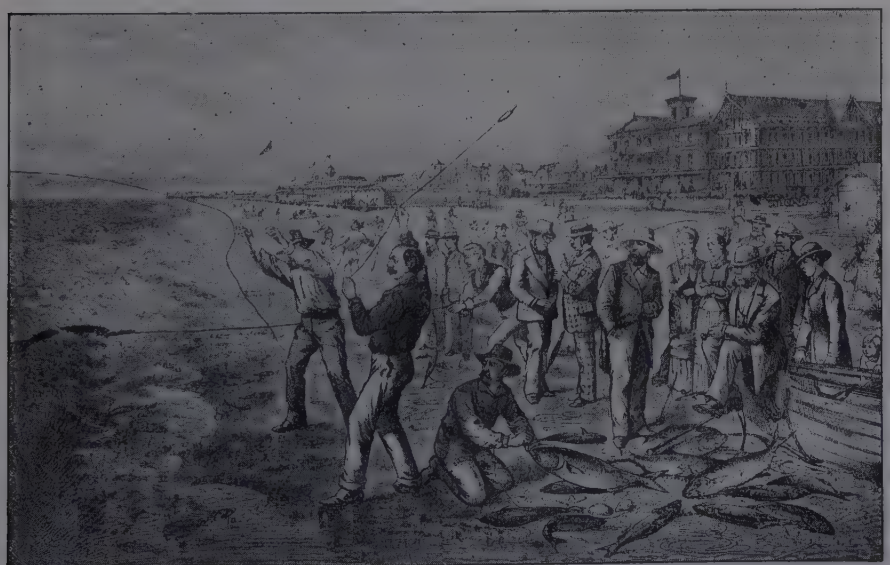
IMPROVING THE ANGLER'S TECHNIQUE

199 The fly-casting tournament, from a drawing by Taylor and Meeker in *Harper's Weekly*, October 27, 1883

THE era of expansion in the locale of the angler's activities was also one of marked improvement in his technique. A British journalist was probably justified in saying in 1859 that there was little scientific angling in the United States, but a quarter century later there were many who had learned the art of casting the fly with such grace that it falls upon the surface of the stream like the alighting of a winged insect. To promote accuracy and distance in fly-casting and bait-casting anglers' tournaments were organized. During the decade of the 'eighties Central Park in New York became the rendezvous for the eastern experts, scores trying their skill with a rod of split bamboo weighing less than five ounces. Later the contests were made national in scope and eight or ten separate events featured the programs at Van Cortlandt Park. Western sportsmen, who had learned their technique along the streams and lakes of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota frequently were high scorers in the tournaments. The Chicago Fly-Casting Club and the Anglers' Club of New York represented the highest achievements in their respective sections of the country.

SEA FISHING

ONE event in the National Anglers' Tournament of special interest to eastern fishermen was surf casting for distance. With the depletion of game fish in many of the eastern rivers the popularity of sea fishing increased rapidly along the Atlantic seaboard. At Asbury Park and other New Jersey resorts squidding for bluefish became a fashionable pastime. An artificial fly covered with eel skin was hurled out into the surf and proved a killing bait when the fish were running strong. Off the fishing banks in New York Bay there was a congestion of steamers, sailboats, and small cats during the weeks at the height of the season. They returned at the end of a day's sport with passengers wearied from pulling in tautogs, bluefish, weakfish, flounders and an occasional cod. From Boston, Providence, and other cities ships set out for a week's excursion, many of them visiting the Newfoundland banks for cod, haddock, halibut, and mackerel. In their desire for size the sportsmen accepted as game fish species which they had formerly considered only as commercial fish. There was little real sport in the taking, for the larger varieties of salt-waterfish in northern waters were not crafty fighters.

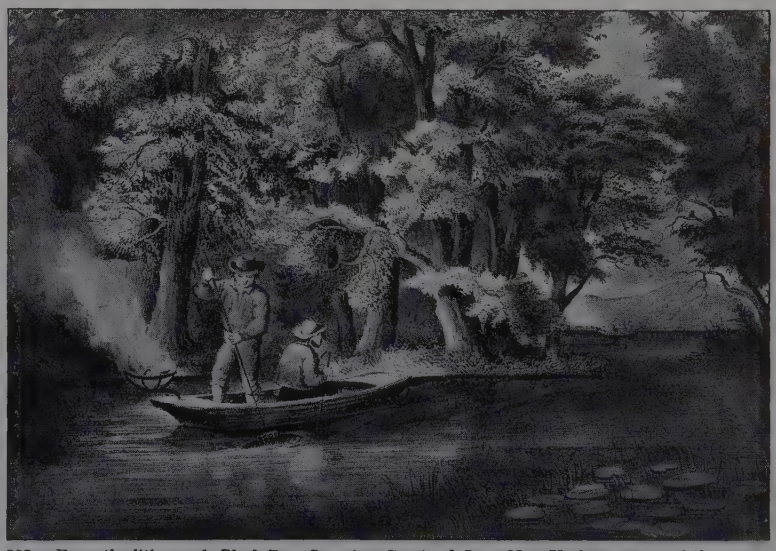


200 Squidding for bluefish at Asbury Park, from a drawing by Theodore R. Davis in *Harper's Weekly*, July 3, 1880

201 Spearing the Salmon, from an etching by Auguste Hervieu in J. K. Townsend, *Sporting Excursions in the Rocky Mountains*, London, 1840

DESTROYING THE GAME FISH

AMERICANS have been amazingly prodigal with the natural resources of their country whether of field, forest, or stream. Unfortunately not all who wielded the rod and line attested the truth of the angler's saying, "It is the soul we seek to replenish not the creel." The mere pursuit may be enchanting but a large catch has ever been the desired consummation of that pursuit. When game fish were everywhere abundant and sportsmen relatively few there was little thought of the morrow. In 1849 an English visitor and his American guide enjoyed the trout fishing in the Catskill and Adirondack streams. They seldom caught fewer than one hundred a day and in one stream where they tarried long the indefatigable anglers hooked six hundred from sunrise to sunset. Yet they complained that because of the "villainous practise" of netting trout the fish had become extinct in some streams and scarce in others. Of a sort with this taking of trout with the net was the custom of setting out scores of baited lines for pickerel and lake trout and tending them at intervals during the night by the light of pine torches, or the so-called sport of fishing through the ice, each hole equipped with a stick or small furze bush as an indicator so that one man on skates could tend as many as one hundred holes. More devastating to the game in the streams was the spearing of salmon and trout during the spawning season, a diversion learned from the Indians, but carried to extreme lengths by the American imitators. By 1870 the cry went up against mercenary fishermen who cared more for an enormous catch than for the sport of angling, against poachers who resorted to any device to secure a supply for the commercial market, and against ignorant men and boys who insisted upon the indiscriminate taking of fish at spawning time. It was asserted that from large areas in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania the best game fish had disappeared. Already plans to cope with the problem were being tried out. Fish culture was beyond its experimental stage and state legislators were becoming interested in legal safeguards to protect one of the state's valuable resources.

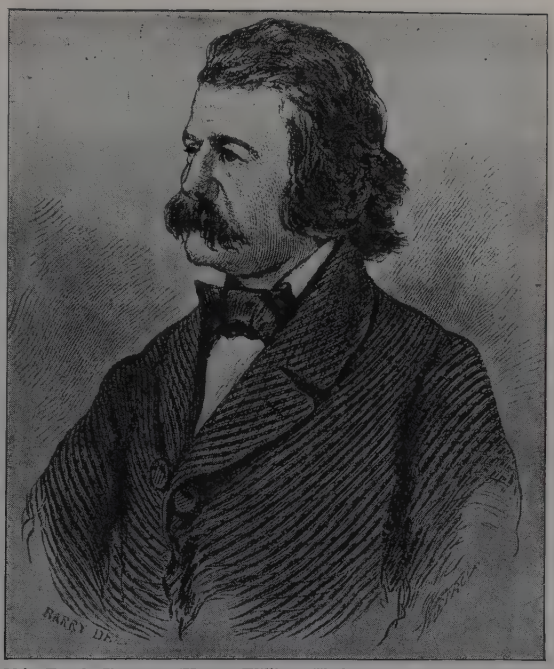


202 From the lithograph *Black Bass Spearing*, Currier & Ives, New York, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York

203 From a lithograph by N. Currier, 1856, after the painting *Trout Fishing on Chateaugay Lake* by Arthur F. Tait (1819–), courtesy of Fred J. Peters, Flushing, Long Island

FRANK FORESTER, 1807–1858, ANGLER AND NIMROD

Among the early protestants against the indiscriminate slaughter of game in stream and forest, none was more influential than Henry William Herbert, writing under the pen name of Frank Forester. Born in London and educated at Cambridge, he spent his mature years in the United States. From the background of the typical English gentleman of his generation he brought to his adopted country a fondness for field sports which determined the subject matter of many of his literary efforts. His numerous historical novels and romances were soon overshadowed by his interesting, if not always authoritative, commentaries on horsemanship, angling, shooting, and woodcraft. Though he leaned heavily upon the works of Walton and Hawker and such American naturalists as Mitchill, Wilson, and Audubon, many of his contributions were based upon personal experience and observation. An inveterate foe of the poacher and the pot-hunter, he sought to inspire the youth of America with a sense of the finest traditions associated with the sports of forest, field, and stream.



204 Frank Forester (Henry William Herbert), from an engraving after a drawing by Barry, in *Ballou's Pictorial Drawing Room Companion*, August 23, 1856

THE GENTLEMAN SPORTSMAN

In the days when Frank Forester published his first fugitive sketches on angling and shooting, there were few sportsmen in the whole northeastern section of the country. The term itself had a different connotation in the 'thirties of the last century from that which attached to it a generation later. In most communities it was regarded as an appellation to be avoided, for it applied to one who consistently followed the races or by the light of the flickering lamp watched expectantly the green field of the gaming table. Forester labored indefatigably to change this conception, but he found great prejudice against even the devotees of rod and gun. While there were a few in his generation who eschewed hunting and fishing because of humanitarian considerations, a larger number objected to the waste of time involved in a frivolous diversion. Reputable merchants in the eastern cities frowned upon the young employee who took twenty-four hours out of a month for a day's snipe-shooting or asked for a short vacation in the summer to fish the streams of the neighboring highlands. It was with considerable misgiving that the New York business man concealed his shooting toggery in a huge carpet bag and stole across by the ferry to the Jersey swamps. Forester chided his associates who shrank dismayed from the verge of a snipe-bog, yet his own pseudonym had originally been a protective covering to conceal the fact that a litterateur of repute was interested in the sports of rod and gun. The situation appeared the more distressing to him because he judged a country where hunting had long been a profession by the standards of a land where it was regarded as the special privilege of the gentleman.

205 From a drawing *Trout Fishing — Nature Versus Art*, by Sol Eytinge, Jr., in *Harper's Weekly*, May 19, 1877

206 Wildfowl shooting from a "sculling float," from a drawing by Albert G. Reinhart in *Harper's Weekly*, November 7, 1885

ON THE SALT MARSHES

DESPITE his strictures on the absence of true sportsmen in America, Frank Forester recognized a growing inclination among well-to-do residents of the Atlantic seaboard to find recreation in hunting. Following the line of least resistance many of them took advantage of the wild fowl which sought the salt marshes that bordered the ocean from Maine to the Gulf of Mexico. Each spring from the warmer waters of Florida, Mobile Bay, and the lagoons and flats of the Mississippi came countless varieties of waders — curlews, plovers, godwits, sandpipers and tattlers — bound for Labrador to hatch their young in due season. On their perennial flights northward they were greeted by increasing numbers of hunters, concealed in boats masked with sea trash and covered by reeds. On small pools left by the receding tide admirable decoys carved from pine wood lured them within the range of masked batteries which wrought destruction. For the talented layman, who made and set his own decoys, paddled his own boat, and whistled his own birds, it was exciting sport, but the novice frequently carried away little save the memory of the reek of stagnant pools, the unsavory odor of departed crabs and the torturing sting of mosquitoes.

THE CANVAS-BACK DUCK

THE bays, estuaries, and marshes of the Atlantic Coast offered the sportsman every variety of waterfowl and wader from the stately swan to the timid sandpiper. None was more highly prized than the canvas-back duck. This bird of elegant plumage came from the north during the first two weeks in October, choosing the region from the Hudson to Chesapeake Bay as its special province. Although the expert preferred to shoot it on the wing as it flew to and from the feeding grounds, many other devices were used. The most interesting was known as toling, an operation by which the ducks were induced to approach within a few feet of the shore from a distance of several hundred yards. This was accomplished with the aid of dogs, specially trained to run to and fro along the shore performing curious tricks and antics to attract the attention of the fowl. Their curiosity having been aroused, the ducks swam toward the shore, where the shooters were concealed behind cleverly constructed blinds. Even less sporting a method than toling was the practice of some pot-hunters who sank nets beneath the surface of the water so that when the ducks dove for food head and wings became entangled in the meshes and they were drowned. Such netted feeding grounds were quickly abandoned by the birds.

207 From a lithograph *Wild Duck Shooting*, 1870, Currier & Ives, New York, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York

ON CHESAPEAKE BAY

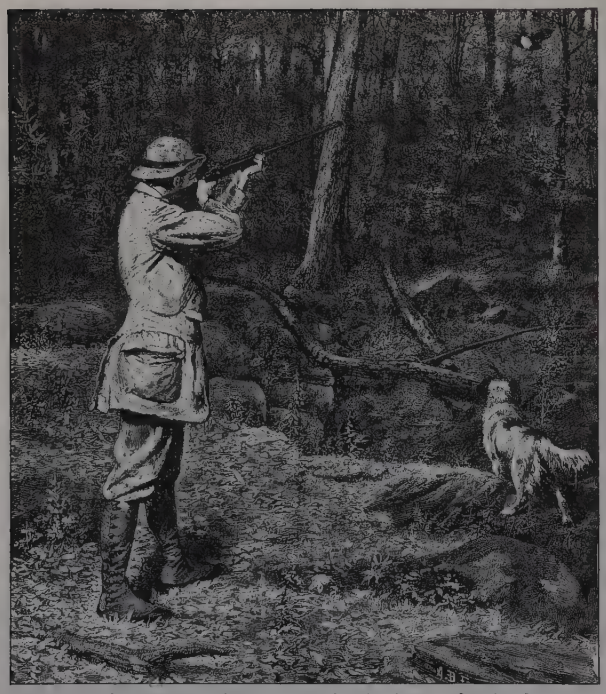
208 Duck shooting by night on Chesapeake Bay, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, February 10, 1866

With the canvas-back came other wild fowl in the early autumn, most of them seeking the waters of Chesapeake Bay. Heralded by the mellow "honk, honk" from the leader of the flying wedge, the long-necked wild geese drifted down on almost motionless wings to feed noisily upon the eelgrass, sedges, and roots of aquatic plants in their rendezvous along the Potomac. In every slough where mallards, blue-winged teal, widgeons, black duck, and pintails settled down to rest, there were gunners impatiently waiting in the sedges. Decoying the sociable birds by means of wooden images brightly painted, they began shooting as soon as the first streak of dawn permitted them to see their targets from the blinds in which they were concealed. Some esteemed it sport on a moonlight night to sail their boats up on the flocks and pick off their ducks as the startled and bewildered fowls took wing. Though Chesapeake Bay was the Mecca for most hunters during the duck season, Barnegat Bay in New Jersey and the coves and inlets of Long Island were equally famous shooting grounds three-quarters of a century ago.

BOTTOM LANDS AND OPEN MEADOWS IN THE SPRING

The species of field game first sought in the spring by the sportsmen of the northern and middle western states was the snipe. With the croaking of the frogs in pools and quagmires and the bursting of the willow buds along the northern streams came this widely-known member of the tribe of waders. Uncertain in movement, swift and eccentric in flight, the snipe afforded rare sport to those who pursued it with dogs over the marshy meadows of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. Over these same meadows, as well as on Long Island and in New England, the upland plover congregated during their seasonal migrations. These nervous and noisy migrants were a blessing to the hunter who desired a good bag with little exertion. They were frequently shot from the two-wheeled gigs so common during the first half of the nineteenth century or else stalked with ponies serving as a blind to conceal the advance of the shooter. While the plover was hunted on the upland meadows, the rail offered easy sport for the beginner in the reedy flats of the river bottoms near tidewater. If the novice secured a good boatman to push the boat over the flats frequented by these birds, he was certain of a large bag, for the slow, short flight of the birds kept them within the range of the veriest tyro. Their trick of hiding in the tall marsh grasses was not always sufficient protection. In September they drew crowds of apprentices in the hunter's art to the marshlands of the Delaware, Susquehanna, James, and Potomac rivers.

209 From a lithograph *Rail Shooting on the Delaware* by Frances F. Palmer,, published by N. Currier, New York, 1852, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York



210 Ruffed grouse shooting in Pennsylvania, from a drawing by Arthur B. Frost in *Harper's Weekly*, December 17, 1881

IN TANGLED BRAKE AND WOODED GLEN

During the first half of the last century the chain of foothills which under many names sweeps from the Highlands of the Hudson west and south through New Jersey and Pennsylvania toward the more famous Alleghenies of the South possessed a wealth of feathered game which provided varied sport for the Nimrods of the eastern states. Everywhere, following the fringe of settlement, was the woodcock — in summer ensconced in some watery brake amid tall grass and fern, or within the shade of alders and willows along some grassy rivulet, in autumn on a drier hillside clothed with tangled second growth. From early summer until the first frost this game bird was pursued, no respite being granted even during the breeding season in June and July. Difficult to discover in its woodland retreat, when flushed by dogs the woodcock often outwitted the gunner with its short, swift flight and quick return to cover. In September when the flocks were already gathering for migration the hunter enjoyed the greatest reward for his tramp through the upland thickets. More partial than the woodcock to rocky glens and craggy gorges was the ruffed grouse. Where the secure deer cropped the young mosses of the mountain stream and the black bear stole wild honey from convenient hives, there on its ancient hemlock log drummed the proud strutter known to New Englanders as the "partridge" and to the middle and southern states as the "pheasant." This rover was one of the most skillful of game birds in cheating the dogs and wearying the sportsmen. More rewarding was the pursuit of that eastern cousin of the ruffed grouse, the heath hen — so rewarding in fact that by 1840 the species was extinct on Long Island, once its chief home, and was rapidly disappearing from the pine barrens of southern New Jersey and Pennsylvania, as well as from among the scrub oak of New England. While woodcock and grouse shooting took the hunter far afield, there was one obliging relative of the grouse which built its nest wherever the farmer worked. In the South its name was "partridge," in the North "quail," but everywhere it was recognized by its clear staccato whistle, "bob-white." Although almost as neighborly as a robin, bobwhite gave the sportsman a lively chase for his game. Whirring into the air at the first sign of danger and heading for the nearest wooded cover, their strung-out line presented no target for the novice. Once the flock was scattered, the best-trained pointer might range an entire slope without flushing a single bird. Clever in matching the sportsmen's tricks with better ones, they attained a popularity as game which came near to bringing about their extinction.

211 Woodcock shooting, from a lithograph by I. and T. Doughty in *The Cabinet of Natural History and American Rural Sports*, Philadelphia, 1830–32

THE FORESTS OF THE ADIRONDACKS

212 *Camping Out*, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, 1863, after the painting by Arthur F. Tait, courtesy of J. F. Sabin

The sportsman who contented himself with an occasional day of quail shooting over a brace of pointers was regarded with disdain by the hunters who studied woodcraft until they could thread their way by instinct through the forest wildness. Such woodsmen learned their craft in the forests of the Maine frontier or in the better-known sections of the Adirondacks. The latter region was visited by groups from various eastern cities, who sought the services of a competent hunter-guide during their apprenticeship. At some lake resort or mountain hostelry they met their preceptor, a veteran of many hunting seasons, whose lead they followed by swiftly paddled canoe and over forest portages into regions where deer were most plentiful. Their base of operations was usually a beautiful sheet of water, the shores lined with a dense and unbroken forest stretching back toward the mountains which surrounded it. The wood stood in all its primeval grandeur, save perhaps where fire had left an ancient scar. Here the party pitched camp, depending more on the resourcefulness of their guide than upon elaborate equipment. A rude protection of small timbers and boughs hastily constructed near the huge camp fire served their purpose. The base of operations selected, if the hunters were anxious to learn the secrets of the forest, they pursued the deer with hounds through whatever wilds the trail traversed. An occasional bear, treed by the dogs, offered a diversion when good shots at the antlered buck were few. Unfortunately, the northern forests were hunted by many who cared not how they got their game. Herds of deer feeding along the margins of the lake offered a mark too tempting to be resisted. Indolent gunners waited at well-defined haunts for the inevitable appearance of their victims. City sportsmen in increasing numbers, as the years passed, took up their stations along some wooded shore and angled for trout while professional hunters with dogs roused the deer from their forest retreats and drove them into the water. Swimming to break the trail, the hard-pressed animal became the prize of the nearest hunter. Fire hunting was likewise popular. By the glare of pine torches or powerful lamps attached to the prow of the canoe the hunter sought the bewildered deer which had come to the water's edge at night to be rid of the insects of the forests or to feed upon the tender aquatic plants along the lake's margin. Water killing and fire hunting took heavy toll of the northern herds and continued until the law of the state intervened to save from utter destruction the choicest game of the forest.

218 *A Good Chance*, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, 1863, in the *American Hunting Scenes* series, after the painting by Arthur F. Tait, courtesy of J. F. Sabin

214 A fox drive in Tennessee, from a drawing by Edward W. Kemble in *Harper's Weekly*, March 28, 1891

THE CIRCULAR HUNT

The westward and southward movement of population during the early decades of the nineteenth century carried the frontiersman into regions where wild game was so abundant as to constitute a menace. Its retreat before the frontier settlements was not always swift enough to satisfy the pioneer farmer in the southwest. He became a hunter from necessity, frequently joining with his neighbors in a coöperative enterprise which combined the pleasures of pursuit with the satisfaction of exterminating prowling marauders. Such enterprises were the circular hunts common to the states of the middle border. An area three or four miles in diameter having been designated as the scene of activities, neighbors within a half day's ride gathered at the home of the grand master of the hunt, who selected the best marksmen and stationed them fifty or seventy-five yards apart around the circumference of the circle. On a clear day in early winter all was bustle and excitement, the horses neighing and dogs barking as the hunters took their posts and the signal to advance was given. No game of consequence was allowed to escape. Foxes and wolves were started from their lairs, while the hounds dragged down deer or treed bears. Occasionally a wild cat brought to bay wrought havoc among the dogs before he was dispatched. As the hunters converged toward the center of the circle all firing ceased. The game had now been driven in a confused mass into a predetermined clearing where the best marksmen systematically completed the work of destruction.

SOUTHERN SWAMP AND FOREST

Except for the moose, the hunters who penetrated the wilderness areas from Virginia to Florida and westward through the gulf states found as varied and abundant game as in the northern forests. As the impervious swamps were subdued to the culture of rice and the highlands exchanged their wooded covering for maize and cotton the denizens of the forests sought more isolated retreats. Yet in the first half of the nineteenth century the southern gentleman had not far to go for sport with gun and dogs. The "chug-u-logga, chug-u-logga-chug" of the wild turkey still sounded; the deer licks were not entirely abandoned; bears, wolves and foxes infested the mountain side; and the wild cat and cougar had their lairs in marshy thickets whence they sallied forth on marauding expeditions.

215 Bear hunt in a southern cane-brake, from a drawing by Alfred R. Waud in *Harper's Weekly*, October 22, 1870

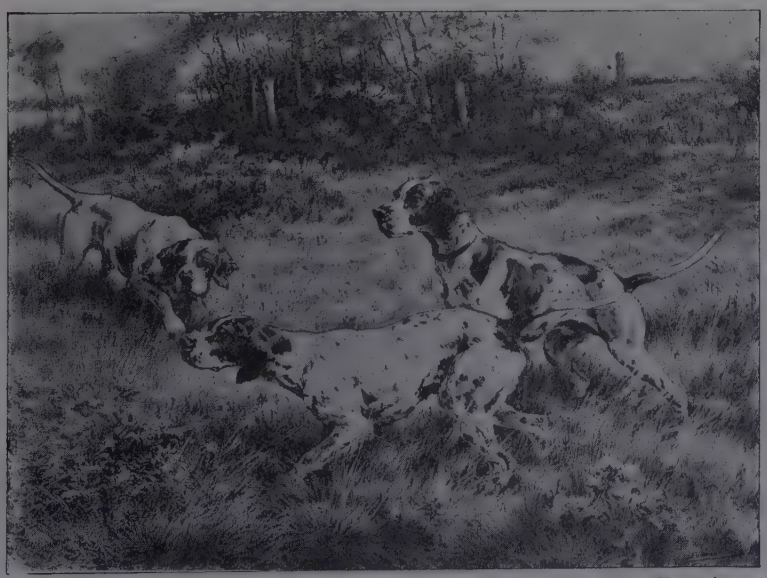
A WILD-CAT HUNT

216 Treeing and Shooting a "Painter," from a wood engraving in the possession of the publishers

ALONG the frontier every man's hand was against the bay lynx and the cougar. Indiscriminately known as wild cats and "painters," they were hunted with genuine zeal from the Carolinas to Mississippi. Though the range of these stealthy prowlers was not limited to the South, it was particularly there that their pursuit ranked with deer-stalking and bear-hunting as an important sport. "Two drivers, one mounted and one on foot, managed the dogs and beat the thickets. Four couple of staunch hounds skirted the cover, while three pointers and a setter penetrated the thicket and gave variety to the sport, by springing occasionally a woodcock, snipe or partridge. . . . The hounds had not long entered the thicket in which we concluded that the cat still lurked, when they struck off on an animated drag; and soon, a burst from the pack assured us that the cat was roused. . . . It was at this moment that Dash espying something in motion in the leafy top of a bay-tree, cracked off his Joe Manton with such effect that presently we heard a heavy body come tumbling through the limbs until it splashed into the water. Then came a stunning burst from the hounds — a clash from the whole orchestra in full chorus! — growl from the assailed, with an occasional squeak on the part of the assailants, which showed that the game was not all on one side. We were compelled, all the while, to be delighted ear witnesses only of the strife which resulted in the victory of the hounds." — WILLIAM ELLIOTT, *Wild Sports of Carolina.*

POINTERS AND SETTERS

ALTHOUGH the American hunter relied on his dogs almost as much as on his gun, he possessed comparatively few well-trained representatives of the European types. Writing in 1854 Frank Forester lamented the difficulty of obtaining such good retrievers as the spaniel, which he considered invaluable for wild-fowl shooting. Pointers and setters, however, were admirably adapted to the needs of the American hunter when afield for upland game. The pointer was perhaps the favorite of the southern sportsman when the game was chiefly bob-white quail. However, the well-feathered legs and toe tufts of the setter gave it the advantage in the rough country of the North and East frequented by woodcock and grouse. The characteristics of the two breeds and their methods of finding and handling the game are similar, yet there are stanch partisans of each among our sportsmen. Words of high praise could be applied to individuals of either breed.



217 From the painting *Pointers* by Edmund Osthaus (1858–1928), courtesy of the Howard Young Galleries, New York

218 Duck shooting on Chesapeake Bay, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, February 10, 1866

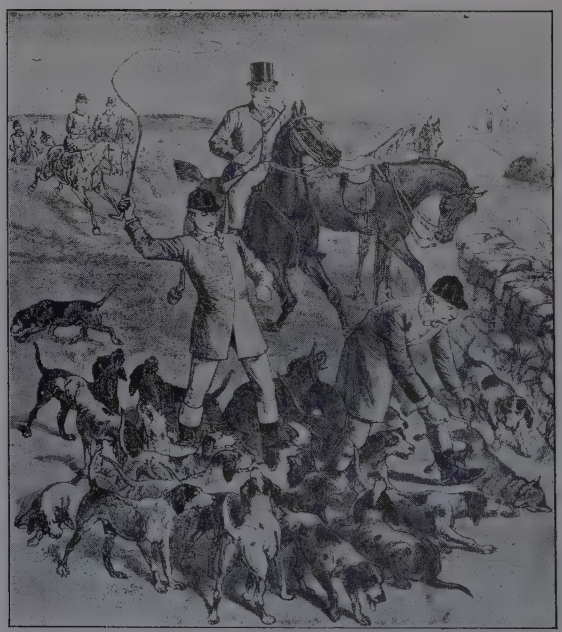
RETRIEVERS

THE spaniels, famous as retrievers in Great Britain and other European countries, were little known to American sportsmen of seventy-five years ago. A dog with considerable Newfoundland blood was used occasionally by the duck shooters in the vicinity of Chesapeake Bay. Along the Atlantic shore these powerful dogs were the reliable retrievers for the hunters of the bays and salt marshes. Known later as Chesapeake Bay dogs, they seldom failed to recover the victim of the hunter's shot.

THE HOUNDS

THE majority of American hunters used dogs only as a means of finding the game alive and recovering it when killed. Consequently, the foxhound, deerhound, harrier, and beagle were not so important as in England and Scotland, where they shared in the pursuit and killing of game. Even in hunting bear and wild cats, though the dogs were usually in at the death, trained hounds were seldom used. The packs consisted of rough-haired terriers and larger mongrels descended through uncertain lineage from the bloodhound. There were, however, excellent packs of well-trained hounds in the country. The American foxhound probably was inferior to the improved English breed which followed the trails over the classic ground of Melton Mowbray, but it was adapted to hunting in difficult woodlands, marshy brakes, and deep forests where perfection of scent was desirable. In the northern states the blood of the foxhound had been mingled with that of the English harrier to produce an American type much used in hunting rabbits and other small game. A variety of stag hounds represented the Scottish deerhound with its speed and endurance. They were the invariable companions of the sportsmen mounted on fleet steeds who coursed the deer and elk over the boundless prairies or ran down the gaunt wolf when more desirable game failed them.

219 A Country Meet, from a drawing by Winfield Lukens in *Harper's Weekly*, January 22, 1898



220 Fox-Hunting at Southwick's Grove, from a drawing by H. A. Ogden in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, October 18, 1879

THE CHASE

221 From an engraving by E. T. Humphrey after the painting *Breaking Cover*, by Philip Reinagle in *The Cabinet of Natural History and American Rural Sports*, Philadelphia, 1830–32

SELDOM in the United States did the cross-country chase reproduce the spirit of the English gentry riding to hounds. From Maryland to Florida bears, deer, and foxes were hunted with packs of dogs, but the object of the huntsman was more often to get a killing shot with his gun than to enjoy a thrilling ride across the open country. North of Maryland, with the exception of certain sections in Pennsylvania and New York, there was little following of game on horseback. Though the countryside might be propitious for the chase, the industrious farmers of New England and the middle states resented having fields tramped and fences broken by hard-riding Nimrods engaged in a sport which was traditionally associated with the privileged leisure class. The rural population in the North preferred to secure its game by setting forth afoot with a few tousled hounds and armed with the reliable weapons of the frontiersman — the shotgun and the rifle.

222 The Start of the Hunt, Essex Fox Hounds, Far Hills, N. J., from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

THE FOX-HUNT

SOUTHWARD from Chesapeake Bay the descendants of the colonial planters indulged in fox-hunting, at times with that attention to detail and appointments which made the sport so great a spectacle in England. To the sound of winding horns the neighboring gentry gathered at an appointed rendezvous, each accompanied by his favorite dogs and a negro driver to manage them during the preliminaries to the chase. The hunters, representative usually of the landed aristocracy of the district, were mounted on fine horses which nervously awaited the sending in of the hounds. When the scent left behind by Reynard in his noctural rambles was struck, the dogs encouraged by the voices of their drivers pushed forward to unravel the trail through all its devious turnings. Once roused from his hiding place the wily fox led an exciting chase through field and woodland, over fence and stream, with hunters and hounds in full cry. The traditional amenities have been perpetuated by the hunt and riding clubs in many sections of the East.

223 The Fox-Hunt, from an engraving after a drawing by Jan Chelminski in *The Century Magazine*, July 1886

224 The American trapper, from an engraving by John Filmer in *Appleton's Journal*, April 1, 1871

ALONG THE MISSOURI

While game was still abundant in the eastern half of the country, a few American hunters and European sportsmen followed the advancing outposts of the fur trade into the prairies and mountains beyond the Mississippi. Before the discovery of gold had increased the covered-wagon caravans rolling slowly through South Pass toward the Pacific Coast, small parties of easterners were learning from experienced trappers and traders the best points along the Missouri and its northern tributaries for chasing the awkward buffalo or coursing the fleet deer and elk. To the brigades of trappers engaged in the business of securing peltries for the market were added scores of hunters, some motivated by the spirit of the true sportsman, anxious to exploit for pleasure the game of the trans-Mississippi West.

ON THE PRAIRIES

Thomas Jefferson thought that the territory of the Louisiana Purchase would absorb the energies of the American people for many generations. Yet within three decades after 1850 the frontier line of settlement was being thrust ever westward by thousands of farmers, miners, cattlemen, and merchants following the speculative railroad builders over the prairies and mountains between the Missouri and the crest of the Rockies. Except for certain areas the plainsmen overran a region abounding in wild life. In the autumn the grouse gathered in flocks and at the warning of some old drummer rose into the air to fly booming on toward their winter habitat. Along the river courses the blue and green winged teal and other wild ducks prepared for the flight southward; the local mallards were joined by their brethren from the North and the honking of the Canada geese mingled with the noisy brattle of the snow geese. The hunter setting out from the banks of the Missouri in midsummer could arrange a sufficiently prolonged expedition to satisfy any sportsman. On the Kansas prairies were the pinnated grouse or prairie hens, just east and north of the southern range of the buffalo herds. Along the smaller tributaries of the Arkansas flocks of wild ducks kept the hunter's fowling piece warm from morning until night. Still farther west his quickness and skill were tested by the swift antelope as it shot across the plains. Then amidst the beauties of the Taos mountains, he stalked the black-tailed deer or patiently sought the black bear in its rocky retreat. Down the Rio Grande he wrought havoc among the wild geese and other waterfowl of the river valleys.

225 Prairie-chicken shooting in Kansas, from a drawing by Theodore R. Davis in *Harper's Weekly*, December 21, 1867

THE AMERICAN BISON

226 From the painting *Buffalo Crossing the Yellowstone* by Charles Wimar (1828–63), in the City Art Museum, St. Louis

The bison, commonly known to Americans as the buffalo, once roamed as far east as the valleys of the Tennessee and the Cumberland, but early in the nineteenth century its range extended from the Gulf of Mexico northward to the Canadian plains and from the Rockies to the Mississippi. For decades the great herds, almost untouched by trappers and fur traders, constituted the chief source of meat, leather, and other necessities for the Indians of the western plains. Prior to the Civil War easterners occasionally journeyed beyond the Mississippi for the pleasure of a buffalo hunt, imitating the Indian method of pursuit on horseback but improving on the bow and arrow and spear with the rifle. Though the Indians at times engaged in wholesale slaughter of the bison by stampeding them over high cliffs, little diminution of the herds was apparent. In 1865 there were probably more than fifteen million of the shaggy animals browsing over the grassy prairies.

227 Hunting the buffalo, from an etching by Auguste Hervieu in J. K. Townsend, *Sporting Excursions in the Rocky Mountains*, London, 1840

THE BUFFALO HUNT

In 1847 an English sportsman encountered buffalo in the valley of the Yellowstone, where in company with several representatives of the American Fur Company he enjoyed the sport of hunting them. Of his first hunt he wrote: "Holding our loaded guns in rest, we started at full speed toward the herd. Away went the huge mass raising a whirl of dust over the plain, followed by us in hot pursuit. We soon overhauled them, and continued loading and firing away into the herd. . . . Buffalo-hunting is a noble sport, the animal being swift enough to give a good horse enough to do to close with him; wheeling round with such quickness as to baffle both horse and rider for several turns before there is any certainty of bringing him down. Added to which, there is the danger of being charged by one old bull while in pursuit of another." — John Palliser, *The Solitary Hunter*, London, 1859.

THE EFFECT OF THE TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILROAD

The completion of the Union Pacific Railroad and its junction with the Central Pacific in 1869 drew a dividing line across the buffalo range. The formation of two distinct herds was the consequence; the larger roamed south of the railroad east of Colorado, while the smaller one established itself west of the Missouri from Nebraska to the Canadian provinces. With the opening of rail transportation hunters poured into the buffalo country. Some were true sportsmen, but the majority, anxious to reap a profit from the sale of hides in eastern markets, were harbingers of destruction.

228 Shooting buffalo on the line of the Kansas-Pacific Railroad, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, June 3, 1871

229 *Solitude*, from a drawing by Frederic Remington in Frederic Remington, *Drawings*, R. H. Russell, New York, 1897

THE WORK OF EXTERMINATION

In 1871 Colonel Richard I. Dodge rode for days through the southern buffalo range, and was never out of sight of the grazing herds. Within five years only a few remnants of the mighty host, having fled to the isolated parts of the range, had escaped destruction. To some this was but another indication of the energy and efficiency with which the American people had conquered the wilderness and wild life in their march across the continent. To the majority the wanton slaughter appeared finally as the wasting of a great national resource. A few mourned the passing of one of America's most distinctive forms of wild life. That the work of extermination had been done with dispatch none could deny. Sportsmen who knew not the meaning of sportsmanship crossed the plains on trains, shooting down the herds from the car windows. As the railroads penetrated the remote sections of the prairies every part of the buffalo range became accessible. Farmers from the agrarian frontier, construction gangs temporarily out of work, army officers on vacation took advantage of the ease with which hides and meat were to be had. Most important as agents of destruction were the professional hunters hired by commercial companies to supply bales of buffalo skins to be shipped to the eastern markets. It became a sign of social inferiority for a family to be without a buffalo robe. On the plains as the years passed stinking carcasses and piles of white bones told their story. In 1876 the southern herd was virtually gone. The smaller and less accessible herd on the northern range survived for several years, but in 1885 when the country awakened to a realization of the situation only a few straggling herds remained to save the species from complete extinction within the borders of the United States.

HUNTING ELK AND ANTELOPE

On the plateaus just east of the Rockies the hunter who knew his woodcraft found much sport in stalking the white-tailed deer through thickets of willows and cottonwoods or in trailing the blacktails into the pine and cedar woodlands which they preferred. In winter the sportsmen, equipped with snowshoes and accompanied by dogs, were aided by the difficulty which the deer experienced as it broke through the crusted surface of the snow. Less rewarding was the coursing of elk and antelope over the prairies. The pursuit of either quarry required ingenuity and equestrian skill on the part of the hunter and unusual speed and endurance in his horse. Even with the aid of a pack of swift greyhounds the sportsman who followed the trail of the flying antelope could not be sure of anything more than a stirring gallop across the plain. He was much surer of getting within range of both elk and antelope by stealthily stalking them in their favorite haunts or awaiting their appearance at some spot to which they had been attracted by such antics as are depicted in the accompanying drawing.

230 Antelope Hunting in the West, from a drawing by William M. Cary in *Harper's Weekly*, May 23, 1874

MOOSE

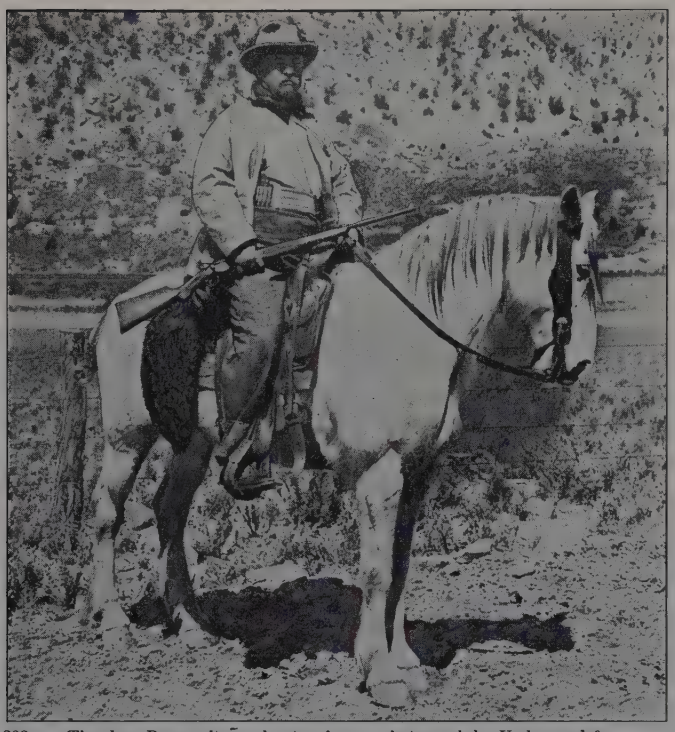
231 Still-hunting the Moose, from a drawing by A. B. Frost in *Harper's Weekly*, November 10, 1883

At the time when a few Americans were beginning to regard the region beyond the Mississippi as a hunter's paradise, one of the noblest denizens of the forest was rapidly disappearing from the eastern states. A few moose were still found in northern Maine but the broad antlered bulls were no longer seen in the Adirondacks. Small herds, however, moved through the wilder areas of Michigan and Wisconsin or the tamarack swamps of Minnesota, while in portions of Montana, Wyoming, and Idaho they sought the lakes and rivers in large numbers during the summer months. The Indian had learned, what the white man, too, speedily turned to advantage, that moose repeatedly visit the same drinking place. During mating season an easy method of capturing the bulls was usually successful. The wail of the cow moose was simulated by making a horn out of birch bark and calling through it. The imitation rarely failed to bring a fine male from his haunts to meet his fate from the rifle of a concealed hunter. Relatively few, however, were the sportsmen sufficiently acquainted with woodcraft and the habits of the moose to pursue their quarry over rough trails deep into the wilderness swamps which they frequented. Some undertook the laborious pursuit in winter, when the snow revealed the trail and impeded the progress of this ungainly monarch of the northern woods.

IN THE ROCKIES

With a swiftness which equaled the advance of settlement in the western half of the country wild life disappeared, or else sought asylum in mountain-locked valleys and vast sheltering forests. In those regions where Indian troubles had served to deflect the westward moving frontier line game was still abundant. By the decade of the 'eighties wealthy sportsmen from the East sought the Rocky Mountains as the best locality for exciting sport. The network of railroads which covered the region carried the hunter within easy distance of the hunting grounds. There he was joined by officers from the western army posts, only a few years earlier concerned with the last desperate resistance of the plains Indians. From the cattle country came prosperous ranch owners with guests who had aspirations to become killers of big game. At the rail stations parties could procure competent guides before proceeding into the mountains; and most of them took advantage of the opportunity, for the expedition was apt to need wise counsel and leaders able to meet emergencies. Of the varied faunal life in the immense ranges of the Rockies none was prized more highly than the bighorn sheep and the grizzly bear. The former, like the chamois of Switzerland, was fond of the highest ledges. To get within range the hunter had to be sure-footed, agile, and undismayed by steep ascents. Possessed of these qualities, he was rewarded with as thrilling a sport as any sharpshooter could desire. Far different was the pursuit of the grizzly. Now patience was the supreme virtue. Hours of waiting at a well-chosen post often brought as good results as a day's tramping along mountain trails. The most ponderous member of the American bear family was extremely cautious in concealing his whereabouts. Those sportsmen who preferred less arduous sport than that afforded by bear and bighorn sought the wapiti or elk in the wooded valleys at the foot of the lofty peaks and the pronghorn antelope on the open prairies.

232 Bighorn Sheep, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



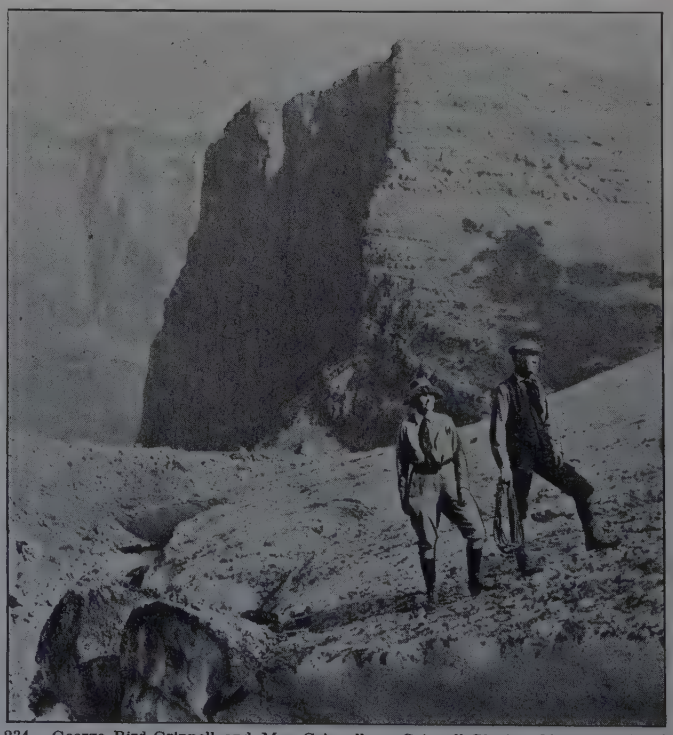
233 Theodore Roosevelt as a hunter, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE BOONE AND CROCKETT CLUB

One evening in December 1887, a young New Yorker was entertaining a group of congenial friends who, like himself, were interested in the Far West. He had only recently returned from a visit to his Dakota ranch and a hunting expedition into the Rockies. In the course of the evening's conversation he proposed the formation of a club of American riflemen to be named in honor of those hunters of the old frontier — Daniel Boone and Davy Crockett. The proposal was so enthusiastically received that within a month twenty-four charter members had formed the Boone and Crockett Club. As the original suggestion had come from Theodore Roosevelt, he was elected president of the new organization, which pledged itself to promote sport with the rifle, to encourage travel and exploration in the partially known sections of the country, to advocate the preservation of game, and to investigate the habits and peculiarities of the nation's wild animals. The first two planks in the program were soon subordinated to those relating to nature study and game preservation. Though the Boone and Crockett Club was neither the first nor the only association of sportsmen interested in curbing the destruction of wild life, it became most aggressive and influential in its campaign to educate the public and secure necessary legislation.

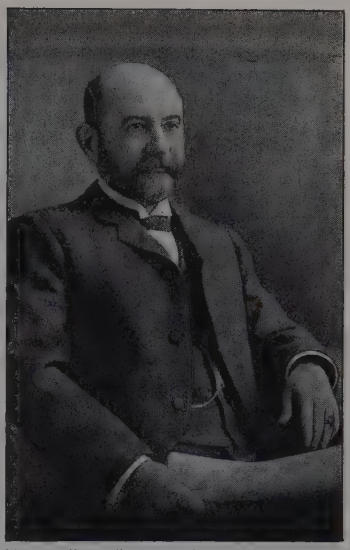
GEORGE BIRD GRINNELL, 1849–

One of the most active members of the Boone and Crockett Club has been George Bird Grinnell. With Theodore Roosevelt he edited a number of its volumes dealing with western game, contributing from his own experience descriptions of wild life in the Rockies. His interest in game preservation antedated the formation of the Boone and Crockett Club. When he became editor of *Forest and Stream* in 1876 he used that journal for vigorous attacks upon so-called sportsmen who betrayed the spirit of true sportsmanship by their indiscriminate slaughter of birds and animals. His pen was ever at the service of those who advocated state legislation to safeguard the public interest against thoughtless and ruthless hunters. Through his initiative the Audubon Society was formed in 1886, attaining within a few years a membership of fifty thousand interested in the protection of game birds.



234 George Bird Grinnell and Mrs. Grinnell on Grinnell Glacier, Glacier National Park, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

WILLIAM T. HORNADAY, 1854–



235 William T. Hornaday, from a photograph, courtesy of William T. Hornaday

In 1887 William T. Hornaday, then serving as chief taxidermist of the United States National Museum, published an elaborate and careful study, which he called *The Extermination of the American Bison.* Its subject matter and treatment indicated the major interest of the young naturalist who was already esteemed in scientific circles for his zoölogical studies. During the next forty years he became one of the most earnest workers striving to acquaint the American people with the appalling rate at which game birds and animals were being destroyed. He initiated and carried to completion, sometimes against the opposition of powerful exploiters of game, a remarkable series of constructive measures for the conservation and increase of wild life. To his efforts and the activity of his close associates, the nation owes the creation of two bison ranges, the protection of the fur seals, the establishment of several big game sanctuaries, and the reform of "bag limit" laws in many of the states. Through the efforts of the Permanent Wild Life Protection Fund, Mr. Hornaday has opposed all organizations which under the guise of "conservation" have advocated programs inconsistent with the perservation of our vanishing game.

GAME LAWS

The same prodigality which marked the nation's exploitation of its timber and mineral resources was apparent in its attitude toward the destruction of fish, fowl, and fur-bearing animals. Where wild life was so abundant, it frequently placed difficulties in the way of an expansion of the farmer's frontier. Colonial bounties on wolves and other marauders antedated every other type of legislation concerning game. It was only when wholesale slaughter threatened the complete extinction of certain species of wild animals that serious attention was given to conservation. The disappearance of the heath hen from Long Island early in the nineteenth century and the heavy toll taken before 1850 from the Catskills occasioned a mild demand for state regulation. For the majority of Americans, however, game laws were associated with the peculiar privileges of the rich and the oppression of the poor so evident in the English legislation protecting game preserves. In addition to this vague prejudice against game protection, the farmer and frontiersmen suspected that game laws were drafted to favor the urban sportsman by limiting the liberty of the rural population to hunt and fish when and where it pleased. Against this background of widespread hostility such game laws as were enacted during the first three quarters of the nineteenth century appeared ineffective. It required time for an educational propaganda to supplant deep-rooted prejudices with an understanding of the wisdom of legislation controlling the taking of wild life. In accomplishing this change the intelligent sportsmen of the country played an important part. Within the last thirty years a majority of the states have enacted comprehensive laws and provided the enforcement machinery to make them effective. Game wardens under the control of state game commissions constitute a body of special police while a system of hunters' and anglers' licenses makes it possible for state authorities to estimate the destruction of game in any given season. Since 1896, when a decision of the Supreme Court upheld the state's right to control shipments of game taken within its borders, the problem of the western states in dealing with commercial hunters and companies shipping to eastern markets has been simplified. There is, however, sufficient latitude in most of the existing legislation to enable unscrupulous anglers and hunters to remain within the law and still indulge in useless destruction.

236 Result of a day's sport in Dakota, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, November 10, 1888

237 Federal Bird Refuges and Game Preserves, from a map prepared by the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, April 18, 1928

FEDERAL GAME PROTECTION

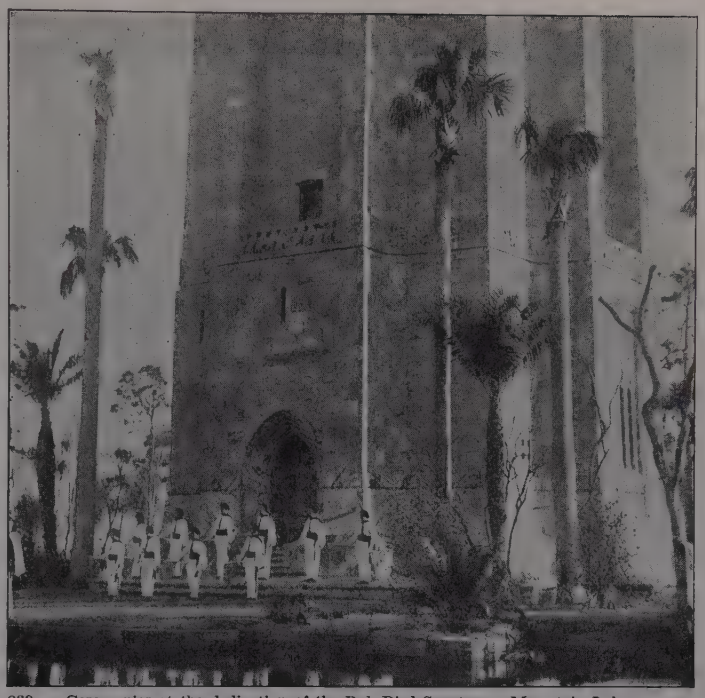
THERE were many who argued that if conservation of natural resources could only be effected through the agency of the National Government, then the preservation of game was also a matter for federal supervision. Prior to 1900 the matter had been left with the states, Congress contenting itself with enactments affecting the District of Columbia. Then came the Lacey Bill, introduced by Representative John F. Lacey of Iowa, which sought to promote a positive national program supplementing the mere negative character of existing game laws. It provided for the introduction of desirable foreign birds, the exclusion of undesirable species, the regulation of interstate traffic in game, and the development of a policy of federal game protection under the supervision of the Secretary of Agriculture. The Lacey Bill marked the beginning of a new era. With the encouragement of President Roosevelt the Department of Agriculture organized game preserves as rapidly as Congress appropriated the necessary funds. To the three reservations in existence in 1900 — Yellowstone Park, National Zoölogical Park in Washington, D. C., and Afagnak Island off the Alaskan coast — a score of preserves have been added in all parts of the nation. The example has been followed by a number of states, notably Montana and Wyoming in the West and New York and Pennsylvania in the East, each seeking to preserve for all time specimens of the wild life which once roamed unmolested through its woodlands.

PRIVATE GAME PRESERVES

OUR countryside, unlike that of Great Britain, has never been dotted with game parks maintained by a small army of keepers for the pleasure of wealthy sportsmen. The abundance of wild life meant equality of opportunity and a consequent democratic spirit among the followers of game trails. There were private game preserves, but they were more often sanctuaries for their denizens than shooting grounds for their owners. One of the earliest examples on record was the preserve of Judge J. D. Caton of Ottawa, Illinois, established in 1860 for the purpose of enabling its owner to study American deer. More famous were the parks of Dr. W. Seward Webb, who set aside ten thousand acres in New York and Vermont. George W. Vanderbilt transferred big game from the West to his estate at Biltmore, North Carolina, which finally became a part of the Federal Government's ever-growing list of preserves. Thus public policy and private philanthropy united in saving picturesque species from the extermination that threatened if they were left unprotected.

238 Herd of domesticated Virginia deer belonging to R. H. Harris, Clarksville, Texas, from a photograph by the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF AUDUBON SOCIETIES



239 Ceremonies at the dedication of the Bok Bird Sanctuary, Mountain Lake, Florida, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

Since 1886 the cause of the birds which are "candidates for extinction" has been ably presented to the public by the Audubon societies. Though the original organization was short lived, the idea persisted in local societies throughout the northeastern states. Primarily interested in songsters and other non-game birds, these groups were not unconcerned with the fate of the species chiefly sought by sportsmen. In 1905 the National Association of Audubon Societies was incorporated and seriously undertook the protection of wild birds and animals. Its activities have been manifold. It has sponsored laws for the creation of state game commissions and the appointment of game wardens. Through the public schools and popular magazines it has conducted a campaign to educate the nation concerning the economic and æsthetic value of birds. Experimentation in propagating wild ducks and other game birds and establishing colonies of sea fowl along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts have been important features in its program. Many of the existing federal bird reservations are the result of its labors, for it has coöperated financially with the Government in a protective policy which does not disregard the legitimate claims of the sportsman.

REPLENISHING DEPLETED STREAMS

By the middle of the last century anglers in the eastern states were already complaining of depleted streams or of choice varieties of fish which had entirely disappeared from certain waters. To replenish such streams as well as to supply the market with a delicious food, the business of fish culture developed. Brook trout and salmon being the game fish chiefly in demand, attention was centered upon their propagation. There were numerous trout ponds in the East when the European method of fish culture from eggs was introduced into the country. In 1865 Dr. Garlick of Cold Springs, New Hampshire, utilizing the discoveries of Stephen L Jacobi made a century earlier, imported salmon eggs and hatched them successfully in the waters of his trout ponds. Within a few years the business had passed from its experimental stage. The creation of the United States Commission of Fish and Fisheries in 1871 was followed by the establishment of numerous state commissions, charged with the stocking of depleted streams or the introduction of new varieties into waters where conditions were favorable. Thus the angler frequently found his favorite game brought to the streams where he loved to fish.

240 Seth Green's trout ponds near Mumford, New York, from a drawing after a photograph in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, November 1, 1866

CHAPTER V

THE RISE OF THE NATIONAL GAME

WHILE intersectional rivalry was enlivening turf meetings and national prosperity was stimulating Corinthian yachting, the American people became interested in a primitive game presented in a modern form. Baseball, as it was introduced in the decade of the 'forties, possessed elements ancient in origin and known to peoples of many lands. Among the exhibits in the British Museum is a leather-covered ball more than thirty centuries old, stuffed with papyrus waste, its segments of cover sewn in such a way as to make it appear an ancestor of the present-day baseball. In the long span of years since that ball was used in the valley of the Nile mankind has found many ways of playing ball, ranging from the simple pitch and catch of the Eskimo to the complicated cricket of the English. From the historian's point of view American baseball is more or less directly related to these various games, but the youth who were responsible for the development of the sport in the United States were certainly not aware of any ancient heritage. For them it evolved in a perfectly natural fashion from such boyhood games as "four-old-cat" and "rounders" or from town ball, well known to New Englanders in the late eighteenth century.

In the rapid expansion of the sport life of the nation, which marked the latter half of the nineteenth century, the development of baseball played a major part. During the Civil War it became a popular pastime in camps and behind the battle lines. As potential nines from various parts of the country were brought together, the future of the game on a national basis was assured. By reason of its national scope it served as one of the solvents of those sectional animosities which were an aftermath of the war.

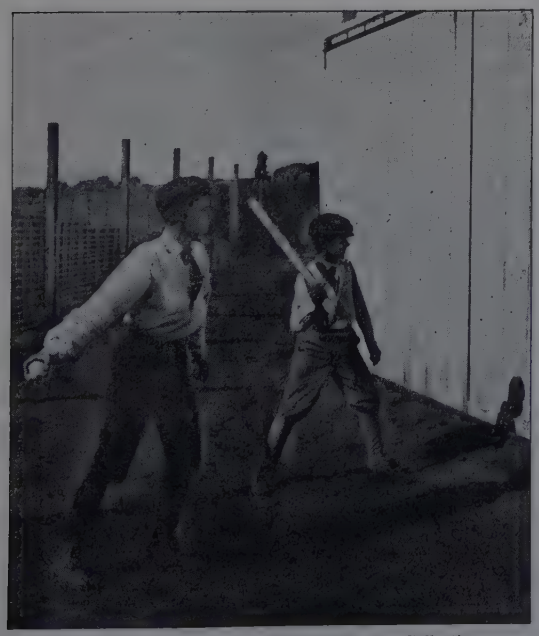
Significant in baseball's subsequent evolution is the fact that it became one of the greatest spectator's sports of all time, earning large sums for promoters and professional players, yet it also turned vacant lots and school grounds into playing fields and the small boy into an enthusiastic participant. By the opening of the twentieth century it was a truly national game, holding sway from grammar school, through high school and college, to the expert professionals in minor and major leagues. Though the complete explanation of its sway may escape us, certain reasons for its appeal are clear. It was a growth of the soil. Whatever its remoter origins, it developed out of games with bat and ball known to most American boys. Unlike cricket, in the United States it was never an exotic. To the participant it offers an opportunity to exhibit a wide range of personal skill within the careful coördination of team play. It is a scientific matching of wits as well as of individual and team prowess. It is devoid of the physical clash so frequent in such sports as football, basket ball, and hockey. To the onlooker it offers a spectacle in which plan and execution are happily combined, with an unlimited number of tense moments, each constituting a minor emotional crisis. Nor can we overlook the fact that its organization, well exemplifying the administrative genius of its promoters, has aroused the admiration of the American people.

241 Town ball, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE FORERUNNER OF BASEBALL

EARLY in the nineteenth century American youth in the eastern states was playing a game, somewhat akin to the English game of "rounders," which contained all the elements of modern baseball. Although it had few enthusiastic devotees, it was apt to be a feature of community recreation at times of town meeting. Oliver Wendell Holmes, who graduated from Harvard in 1829, enjoyed the game while in college. It was neither scientifically planned nor skillfully played, but it furnished considerable excitement. The playing field was a square, sixty feet on a side, with four goals or bases at its four corners. In the center of the square was stationed a pitcher who pitched the ball to a batter at a base in the middle of one side of the square. A catcher and an indefinite number of fielders completed the team supporting the pitcher. Usually there were from eight to twenty players on a side, none of them stationed at the bases, for the batter was out on balls caught on the fly or first bound, and the base runner was out if he was hit by a thrown ball while off a base. The bat was generally nothing more than a stout paddle with a blade two inches thick and four inches wide and a dressed handle, while the ball was apt to be an impromptu affair composed of a bullet, piece of cork, or metal slug, wound around tightly with wool yarn and string. The surface, seldom covered, was stitched to prevent unraveling. Under the name of town ball this game of simple equipment and few rules steadily increased in popularity during the first half of the century.

BARN BALL



242 Barn ball, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

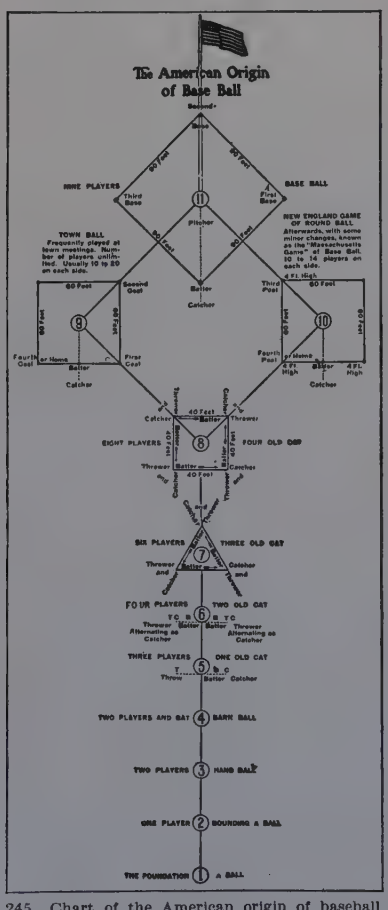
TOWN ball was not merely an American reproduction of the game of "rounders" played by schoolboys in England and Scotland. It had points of similarity with the European game, but the various styles of play in different communities bore witness to the contributions of American boys. Although there is no available record of how this forerunner of baseball developed, it is not difficult to reconstruct the steps in the evolutionary process. The initial stage was barn ball, played by two boys who discovered that by introducing a stick or old axe handle into their aimless throwing and bouncing of the ball they could secure the excitement of competition. One pitched the ball against the side of the barn for the other to hit on its return. If the boy with the bat missed the ball and the pitcher caught it, the batter was out and surrendered his bat to the other. But if the batter hit the ball he tried to score a run by touching the barn and returning to his position before the pitcher could retrieve the ball and hit him with it. Here were the fundamentals of the game of baseball; the pitcher, the batter, the base hit, and the run.

243 One-old-cat, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

FROM ONE-OLD-CAT TO THREE-OLD-CAT

Barn ball was satisfactory enough when only two boys desired to play, but the clamor of others for a place in the game resulted in modifications. A scheme to accommodate three participants developed into one-old-cat, in which two bases were placed some forty feet apart with the batter at one and the pitcher at the other. Behind the batter stood the catcher, who coöperated with the pitcher in his attempts to put the batter out. The batter's efforts were directed toward hitting the ball so far that he could run to the other base and back again before he was hit with the retrieved ball. Each time he succeeded, a run was counted in his favor, and he continued to bat until the ball was caught on the fly or first bound. When four boys played, there was a batter at each base and the other two were alternately pitcher and catcher. This was two-old-cat, which easily expanded into the three-cornered game of three-old-cat whenever as many as six desired to play.

244 Four-old-cat, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library



245 Chart of the American origin of baseball, from the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

FOUR-OLD-CAT

The final step in this sequence of boys' games was four-old-cat with four bases and eight players. At each corner stood a batter and another player who alternated as pitcher and catcher. Although there was coöperation between the players who were not batting in order to get the batter out, the competition was still on an individualistic basis. Each player kept his own score. When a hit was made every batter ran, but only the striker received an addition to his score. At best it was a slow game, and too often disputes over rules rendered it a verbal rather than an athletic contest.

THE TRANSITION TO THE DIAMOND

On the square field of four-old-cat there occurred one of the most important developments in the evolution of baseball. In order to reduce the number of batters and make the game more interesting, the system of individual competition was abandoned in favor of team play. The playing field was still a square, with its sides increased to sixty feet, but the players were divided into two groups which competed against each other. The group at bat scored runs until each player had been put out in turn, when it yielded place to the opposing side. This game was generally known as town ball though New Englanders called it round ball or "Massachusetts baseball" (see Nos. 315 and 316). The rules of play varied greatly in different communities. In New England each side was normally limited to fourteen players, but elsewhere there was little restriction placed upon the number of participants. The consequent crowding of players upon a limited playing field, as well as the confusion about rules, caused a young man in 1839 to devise a new set of regulations and suggest the possibility of the diamond-shaped field.

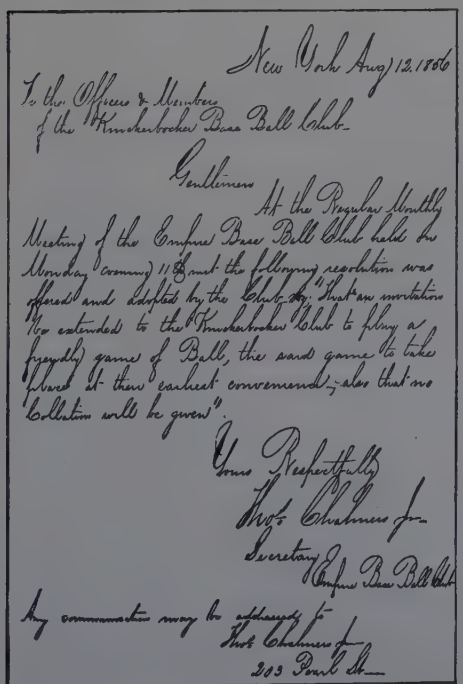
ABNER DOUBLEDAY, 1819–1893

246 Abner Doubleday, from a drawing after a photograph, in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

Abner Doubleday, a young civil engineer in Cooperstown, New York, drafted the first plans for the modern baseball diamond. He was undoubtedly familiar with the various games from one-old-cat to town ball which were being played in 1839, when he undertook to outline a more systematic type of play. His proposals involved a diamond-shaped playing field measuring ninety feet on a side, and the limitation of teams to eleven men. Each team was to bat until three of its men had been put out, the victory being accorded to the team which first scored twenty-one runs. Batsmen were out if the ball was caught on the fly or first bound, but the practice of "soaking" the base runner with the ball in order to secure an out was abandoned. Under the new rules it was necessary for men to play the three bases, since the runner might be put out if caught off his base. Doubleday was not active in the application of this new code to the existing games of baseball, for in the very year that he made his proposals he accepted an appointment to the United States Military Academy at West Point. Shortly after his graduation he served in the Mexican War and for the next twenty-five years remained in the army. In 1861, as a captain of artillery, he fired the first gun from Fort Sumter. At Antietam and Gettysburg he distinguished himself as a leader, receiving recognition of his services by promotion in 1865 to the rank of brevet major-general. Eight years after the war he retired to civilian life devoting himself to business rather than to organized sport.

THE KNICKERBOCKER CLUB

The changes introduced by Doubleday inaugurated a new era for those interested in town ball and round ball. Although there were no organized teams playing regular schedules to popularize the new rules, the diamond began to supersede the square field in the eastern states. In 1845, a group of New York gentlemen, who had been enjoying practice games together for several years, organized the Knickerbocker Baseball Club, the first association of baseball players in the country. Under the leadership of Alexander J. Cartwright they drafted a code of rules based upon the Doubleday system of play with a team of nine men as constituted at the present time. As a result of the publication of their rules and regulations, the Knickerbockers soon had competition in the New York district. In the early years they were more versatile in the banquet hall than on the diamond, which may account for the fact that they accepted few challenges. In 1846 they lost their first match to a group of players calling themselves the New York Nine. The game was played in the Elysian Fields at Hoboken, New Jersey, at that time New York's most popular summer resort, and the Knickerbockers were defeated by a score of 23 to 4 in four innings. Since the team first securing twenty-one runs was declared the victor, the contests were apt to be short if the rivals were not evenly matched. For four years after their initial defeat the Knickerbockers contented themselves with practice games, but in 1851 they returned to competitive matches, setting a standard in uniforms with their blue trousers, white shirts, and straw hats.



New York Aug 12 1846

To the Officers & Members
of the Knickerbocker Base Ball Club

Gentlemen At the Regular Monthly
Meeting of the Empire Base Ball Club held on
Monday evening 11th inst the following resolution was
offered and adopted by the Club viz "That an invitation
be extended to the Knickerbocker Club to play a
friendly game of Ball, the said game to take
place at their earliest convenience, also that no
Collation will be given".

Yours Respectfully
Thos Chalmers Jr.
Secretary Empire Base Ball Club

Any communication may be addressed to
Thos Chalmers Jr
203 Pearl St.

247 A Challenge to the Knickerbocker Club, from the original in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

248 A Baseball Match in the Elysian Fields, Hoboken, N. J., from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, October 15, 1859

A FRUSTRATED DICTATORSHIP

During the decade after 1850 the formation of baseball clubs in New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and numerous smaller towns filled the Knickerbockers with dismay. As they were the first organization in the field they expected to wield a controlling influence in the development of the sport. Some of their members conceived the club to be the final arbiter in matters concerning rules of play, just as the Marylebone Cricket Club formulated the regulations governing cricket in England. This attitude was resented by the newer organizations which felt that the Knickerbockers were hostile to teams recruited from mechanics, clerks, and laborers. Finally the democratic elements in the sport prevailed upon the champion of aristocracy to call a national meeting of delegates of the eastern clubs. Representatives from twenty-five groups responded and in March, 1858, a National Association of Baseball Players terminated any pretension of the Knickerbockers to dominate the rapidly expanding game. One of the first actions of the new association was to appoint a rules committee, which promptly introduced the nine-inning game.

249 The Eckford Nine, 1858, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE GROWTH OF AMATEUR CLUBS

Although the Knickerbockers were disturbed for a time by the tendency of Tom, Dick, and Harry to take part in baseball, they soon came to regard with satisfaction the increasing popularity of the sport which they had sponsored. In the decade after 1850 the rivalry between the better clubs in the East attracted the attention of the public sufficiently to warrant an admission charge at the more important games. Twenty-five clubs had joined in the formation of a national association in 1858, but more than twice that number attended the conventions held in the two following years. In the New York district the teams which secured the happy combination of good players and efficient leaders were the Eckfords of Greenpoint, the Atlantics and Excelsiors of Brooklyn, the Unions of Morrisania and the Knickerbockers and Gothams of New York. The players received no salaries, and the clubs were not interested in attendance and gate receipts. Rivalry between teams in the same district was so intense that some partisan enthusiasts could not be restrained from forceful combat with the enemies of their favorite club.

THE FIRST TOUR

250 The Excelsiors of Brooklyn, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

Most of the contests of the period were between local clubs, but in 1860 the Excelsiors of Brooklyn undertook the first extensive tour of an organized nine. Under the leadership of Captain J. B. Leggett they won their games at Newburgh, Albany, Troy, Rochester, and Buffalo with comparative ease, completing their trip with an invasion of Baltimore and Philadelphia. In the latter cities they encountered more spirited opposition, but succeeded in keeping their record of victories unbroken. Probably the most important factor in their success was the playing of James Creighton, one of the few great pitchers of the pre-war days. An adept in the use of the wrist, he possessed a low underhand delivery which was exceedingly puzzling to batsmen. Speed and control were also assets on which he realized heavily. When death cut short his career in 1862 he was recognized as a man with few peers on the diamond.

THE CLASH OF ARMS

With the firing on Fort Sumter and the consequent hostilities between the North and the South, interest in baseball declined but did not disappear. Many clubs disbanded as their players answered the call to the colors. Few contests were scheduled in the cities which had witnessed the enthusiasm of the previous season. Only thirty-four clubs sent representatives to the national convention in 1861, and the annual meeting was abandoned for the next three years. Yet, even in the clash of arms, the playing fields were not entirely silent. Younger players took the place of those who had entered the service of their country, and a few of the established clubs kept alive the best traditions of the game. To the volunteer in training camp, the soldier behind the lines, and the captive in prison stockade baseball was a great boon during the days of conflict. It served as an escape from the realities of the battlefield, often being played by teams recruited from regiments which were awaiting the resumption of active hostilities. Many in the Army of the Potomac found it a relief during the prolonged uncertainty of the Peninsular campaign. Occasionally games were staged for spectators. It was estimated that nearly forty thousand witnessed a contest on Christmas Day, 1862, between a team representing Duryea's Zouaves of New York and a picked nine from other regiments. In practice games and scheduled matches the boys from the Mississippi valley and the border states learned the niceties of the sport at which New Englanders and New Yorkers were becoming adept. The same leaven was working, though probably less extensively, south of the battle lines. The northern soldier carried the game with him into Confederate prisons, and the southerner saw it played in the prison camps of the North. The intersectional movements of the armies tended to nationalize baseball. There must have been other young men like Albert G. Spalding in Rockford, Illinois, who received their introduction to the game through the interest of returned soldiers. An army can carry much more than shelter tents and condiment cans in its knapsacks.

251 The Call for Volunteers, from a drawing in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

252 Baseball match between the Atlantic Club of Brooklyn and the Mutual Club of New York at Hoboken, August 3, 1865, from an engraving, after a drawing, in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, August 26, 1865

AN ERA OF EXPANSION

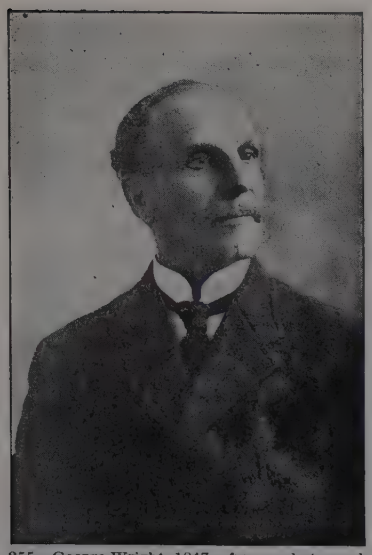
For the baseball players of the country the sequel to Appomattox was a gratifying revival of interest in the game. At the convention of the National Association of Baseball Players, held in 1865, representatives from nearly one hundred clubs took part in the deliberations. Although most of the organizations were located in the East, there was evidence that teams were being formed in all parts of the country. Two years later the national meeting included delegates from scores of nines west of the Alleghenies and south of the Mason and Dixon's line. Most gratifying were the reports of the organization of junior clubs, which testified to the popularity of the sport among the boys of all parts of the nation. In spite of a spirited sectional rivalry which was developing, the East still laid claim to a preëminent position, the Atlantics of Brooklyn claiming the national championship after defeating the New York Mutuals in 1865. For several years their chief rivals for the title were the Athletics of Philadelphia and the Unions of Morrisania.

253 The Union Club of Morrisania, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

ON THE DIAMOND

Judged by the standard of its present achievement, baseball in the years immediately following the Civil War was an unscientific and crudely played game. None of the players trained conscientiously to keep in condition, few of them developing a high degree of skill in their particular positions. Only nine men composed the squads, the relief pitcher generally playing right field when his services were not needed in the box. The rules called for an underhand delivery to the batsman which made effective pitching almost impossible, with the result that scores were apt to be large. The gloveless and maskless catcher stood at a safe distance behind the bat, while the basemen clung to their bags too closely to cover much territory. The outfielder still indulged in the practice of catching fly balls in hat or cap. No one was anxious to decide balls and strikes, the umpire standing or sitting comfortably at some distance from the batter along the first-base line. Few diamonds were kept in good shape, some being convenient fields which were "cleared as much as possible." Among the crowds attending the games were many undesirable characters. Gamblers waved their bills openly; the police were constantly on the lookout for pickpockets; and the drunkard was ever present to create an unpleasant diversion. It was not unusual for hotly contested games to end in a near riot. At all times the lot of the umpire was a hard one.

254 Game between Atlantics of Brooklyn and Athletics of Philadelphia, 1866, from a photograph of an old print, in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library



255 George Wright, 1847–, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

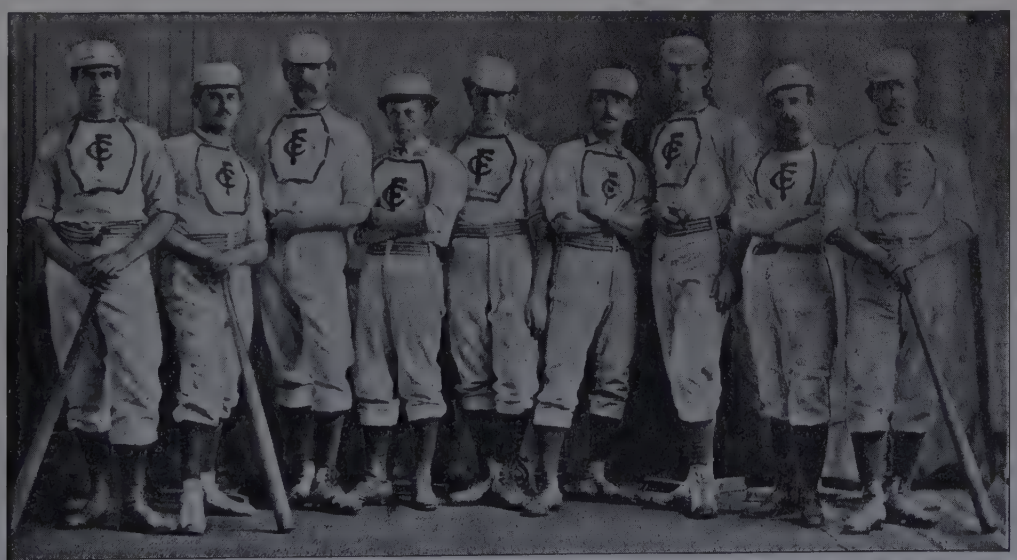
INTERSECTIONAL RIVALRY

Despite its crudities the game was attracting ever larger crowds of spectators. Especially was this true of contests involving teams from different parts of the country. In 1867 the National Baseball Club of Washington, D. C., undertook a western trip at its own expense, playing nine games in five states. Everywhere it was greeted by baseball enthusiasts anxious to compare the merits of the eastern and western clubs. Under the able leadership of George Wright, and aided by the pitching of Harry Wright, the Nationals won every game except one on the trip. It was not only a triumph for eastern baseball but it acquainted a larger public with such skillful players as the Wright brothers, Rogerson, and McVey, all of whom were to earn fame in the annals of the game.

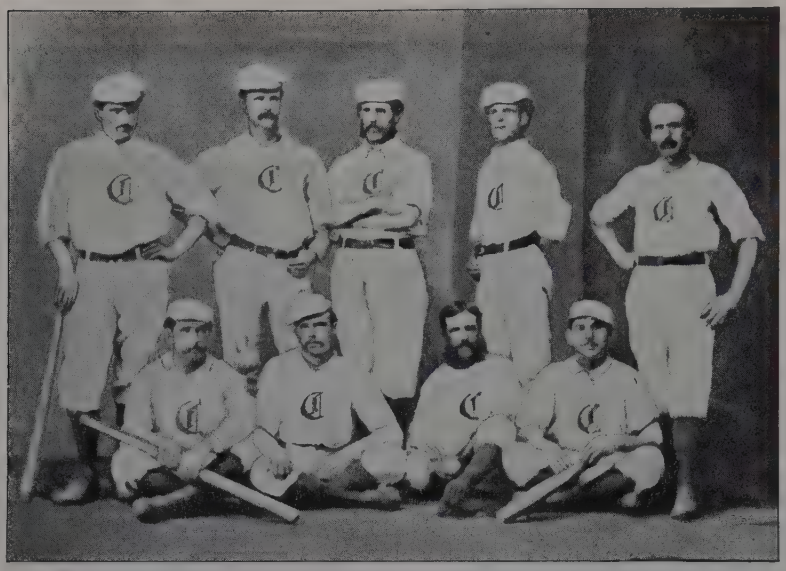
256 Harry Wright, 1835–95, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE FOREST CITY BASEBALL CLUB

The sole conqueror of the Nationals on their western tour was an unheralded team from the little town of Rockford, Illinois, which was known to its followers as the Forest City Baseball Club. So surprising was the victory of the western nine that the *Chicago Tribune* insisted that the game was thrown, a charge which was without foundation. The determining factor in the result was the consistently brilliant performance of several of the young players on the Rockford team. Albert G. Spalding, then a youth of seventeen, pitched an almost faultless game, receiving excellent support from Ross Barnes at short stop. Three years later the business men of Rockford pledged the sum of seven thousand dollars in order to finance an eastern tour for their club. Behind Spalding's excellent pitching the team won thirteen games, losing only to the Mutuals of New York and the Athletics of Philadelphia. A contest with the Unions of Morrisania resulted in a tie. The season was closed in October by a victory over the Cincinnati Red Stockings. But these successes were costly for Rockford, as the Forest City players could not withstand the financial inducements of other clubs.



257 The Forest City Baseball Club, 1869, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library



258 The Cincinnati Red Stockings, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE ADVENT OF THE PROFESSIONAL

Although the regulations of the National Association of Baseball Players forbade the payment of salaries to players, the game under its jurisdiction was not on a strictly amateur basis. Clubs in the larger cities found ways of giving financial aid to players, for it was always possible to make a place on the team attractive by the offer of a lucrative business opportunity. As the competition for good players increased and the gate receipts from important contests mounted, it became ever more difficult for the national organization to preserve even the semblance of amateur status. Finally, in 1869, the leading club of Cincinnati, known as the "Red Stockings," announced its determination to become the first professional nine. There were many who regretted the action. Insisting that baseball, like cricket, should remain an exercise for gentlemen in their leisure moments, and only incidentally an entertainment for the public, they deplored an innovation which seemed to them synonymous with rowdyism. It was with some trepidation, therefore, that the Cincinnati team, led by Harry and George Wright, began its eastern tour. Much depended upon the reception it received from clubs and spectators in the cities without professional teams. So complete was its triumph, measured in games won and in the crowds that watched the contests, that there could be no doubt of popular endorsement of the innovation. The Red Stockings finished the season with fifty-six victories and one tie game.

SOME EVILS AND A REMEDY

The successful defiance of the National Association of Baseball Players by the Cincinnati Red Stockings considerably weakened the power of that organization. It was already under fire for its inability to prevent the irregular drafting of players by the larger clubs, the "throwing of games" at the dictates of professional gamblers, and the open betting which characterized every major contest. Disgusted with existing conditions, eight of the professional teams in the country formed the National Association of Professional Baseball Players in 1871. In the new organization none but professional players were to hold office, and upon the officials was placed the responsibility of curbing the gambling and rowdyism which had become too conspicuously characteristic of the ball parks even under the amateur régime.

259 The Match between the Cincinnati Red Stockings and the Atlantics, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 2, 1870

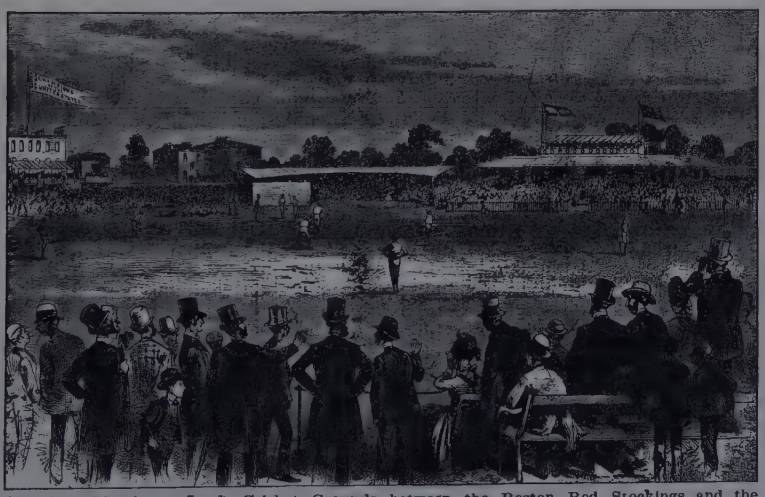
THE NATIONAL CHAMPIONS

260 The Boston Champions of 1874, from a drawing after a photograph, in *Harper's Weekly*, June 27, 1874

The National Association of Professional Baseball Players wrought no miracles. As a reform agency, it proved almost as helpless as its predecessor. After making a few changes in rules, including the addition of a shortstop between first and second base during the season of 1873, it confined its attention to the championship race between the professional teams which recognized its jurisdiction. For four successive years the Boston nine finished in first place, losing finally to Chicago in 1876. Willing to pay good salaries to skillful players, Boston assembled a remarkable team. It profited, when the Cincinnati Red Stockings disbanded, by the acquisition of the services of George and Harry Wright, Leonard and McVey. From the Forest City team came Al Spalding, already recognized as one of the few formidable pitchers on the diamond, and Roscoe Barnes whose speed introduced a roving style of play at second base. O'Rourke, White, and Schaffer completed an invincible combination.

BASEBALL OR CRICKET

The Boston champions of 1874 and their nearest rivals, the Athletics of Philadelphia, were selected by a group of American promoters to carry a knowledge of baseball to Great Britain. English cricket teams had crossed the Atlantic on several occasions to further the English game in the United States, and the visit of the American nines seems to have been in the nature of an acknowledgment of the courtesy. Of the fourteen games played on British soil, Boston won eight before crowds which seemed genuinely anxious to understand the game. The real interest of the spectators, however, was in the cricket matches which the Americans obligingly consented to play. Only a few members of the Boston and Philadelphia clubs, the Wright brothers and J. D. McBride, were skilled cricketers, but the others made up for their lack of cricket "form" by heavy batting. Against the famous Marylebone eleven they were permitted to use eighteen men, a handicap which they scarcely needed in view of the batting ability of Spalding and Anson and the general excellence of their fielding. Not a cricket match was lost by the Americans, a fact which brought them high praise from the sport writers in the British papers. The respective merits of cricket and baseball were carefully appraised and the friends of cricket graciously conceded that the American game was fast, filled with recurrent suspense and excitement, and calculated to develop astonishing accuracy.



261 The Match on Lord's Cricket Grounds between the Boston Red Stockings and the Philadelphia Athletics, from a drawing by Abner Crossman in *Harper's Weekly*, September 5, 1874

262 The cricket match between the St. George Club and the Canadian Club, from a drawing in *The Atlas*, September 29, 1844

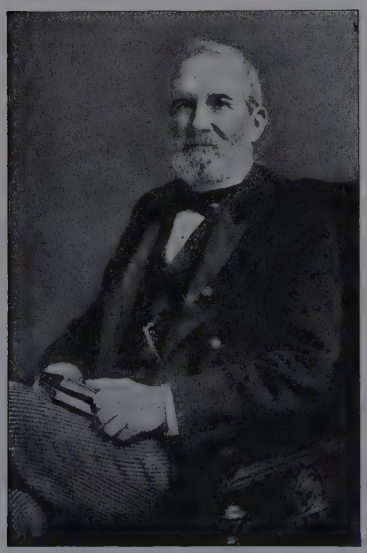
THE REVIVAL OF CRICKET

THE exhibition of cricket given by the Boston and Philadelphia baseball teams in 1874 did not represent the best form of which American players were capable. Although the English game had not become widely popular in the nineteenth century, it continued to be played in various parts of the country. Boston could point to an active club after 1809, and single wicket was played in the neighborhood of New York and Philadelphia during the early decades of the century. The first club to achieve national prominence was St. George Cricket Club of New York, formed in 1840, which arranged a series of international matches with teams from Montreal and Toronto. It derived special satisfaction and prestige from defeating the Canadian elevens, but its matches with American clubs, notably those from New England, were a better indication of the rapidly increasing interest in the game throughout the Northeast.

263 Cricket match between the New England Club and the St. George Club, from a drawing in *Gleason's Pictorial*, October 4, 1851

THE ENGLISH INFLUENCE IN PHILADELPHIA

NOWHERE did cricket have a larger following in the early days than in the districts surrounding Philadelphia. English factory hands at Kensington and Germantown and wealthy merchants of British nativity enjoyed laying out the grounds and improvising the necessary equipment in the decade of the 'forties, when the paraphernalia for the game was not always available. Some of the younger participants, selecting any level field for the game, used upright bricks for wickets, a paddle for a bat, and a ball of none too satisfactory home manufacture. From the ranks of such enthusiasts were recruited members for the clubs which prospered in the decade prior to the Civil War. The pioneer club in Philadelphia was the Union, a result of the energetic leadership of Robert Waller, an English importer, who secured in 1842 a leveled and turfed field at Camden for practice matches. Less formal groups were playing during the same period at Haverford College and Germantown Academy, where John and William Roach Wister sought to interest their schoolmates in a sport which they considered superior to town ball. One of the most important contributions of the Union Cricket Club in its brief period of activity was the support given to junior clubs of boys who were trained to play with proper attention to the details of bowling, batting, wicket-keeping, and fielding. That the seed fell upon good ground was evident in 1854 when it was possible to form the Philadelphia and Germantown clubs, both of which enrolled members who had played in their youth on the grounds at Camden.



264 William Roach Wister, from an engraving after a photograph, in the *Historical Addresses of the Site and Relic Society of Germantown*, Germantown, 1910

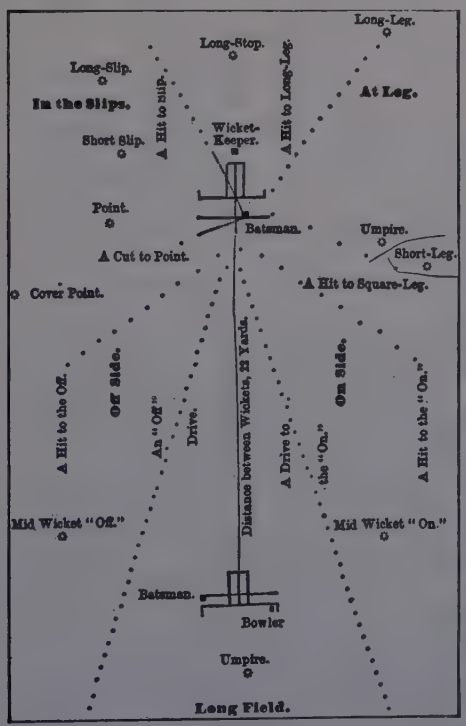
YOUNG AMERICA CLUB

In almost all of the early clubs there was a nucleus of Englishmen, resident but a short time in the United States, which formed the strength of the cricket elevens. The professionals employed by the clubs to supervise the training of the amateur players were likewise of English or Canadian nativity. One club was unique from the day of its organization in barring all but native-born Americans from its teams. It was the Young America Cricket Club, formed by a group of boys in the neighborhood of Germantown in 1855. None of the charter members was more than sixteen years old, but the club had the hearty support of many interested in cricket and became one of the most active organizations in the country. On its teams the members of the Newhall family rose to fame by reason of their skill and versatility. For thirty-five years it maintained a high standard of play, merging with the Germantown Club in 1889 when the latter group adopted a rule against foreign players.

265 The Young America Cricket Club Eleven, from an engraving after a photograph, in the *Historical Addresses of the Site and Relic Society of Germantown*, Germantown, 1910

THE PLAYING FIELD

By the middle of the nineteenth century the rules of the Marylebone Club were accepted in the United States and the game was uniform throughout the country. Although single wicket was still played occasionally, it was fast disappearing as a result of the substitution of round arm bowling for the underhand delivery. Wherever it was possible to secure a satisfactory field, the cricketers played double wicket. The layout of the grounds was virtually the same as that required for the modern game. Two wickets, each formed by three stumps twenty-seven inches high with two small sticks or bails topping eight inches between them, are placed at a distance of twenty-two yards from each other. The turf in front of each wicket is carefully leveled, or else matting on a firm base is used to give a smooth surface. A line eight feet eight inches long, with the wicket in the center, marks the bowling crease or position of the bowler, while a line parallel to the wicket, and four feet in front of it, known as the popping crease, defines the domain of the batter. As the accompanying chart indicates, the batsman in defending his own wicket may drive the ball at a variety of angles from his position within the popping crease.



266 Diagram of Cricket Field, from Henry Chadwick, *American Cricket Manual*, New York, 1860

267 Cricket players on Boston Common, from an engraving after a drawing in *Ballou's Pictorial Drawing Room Companion*, June 4, 1859

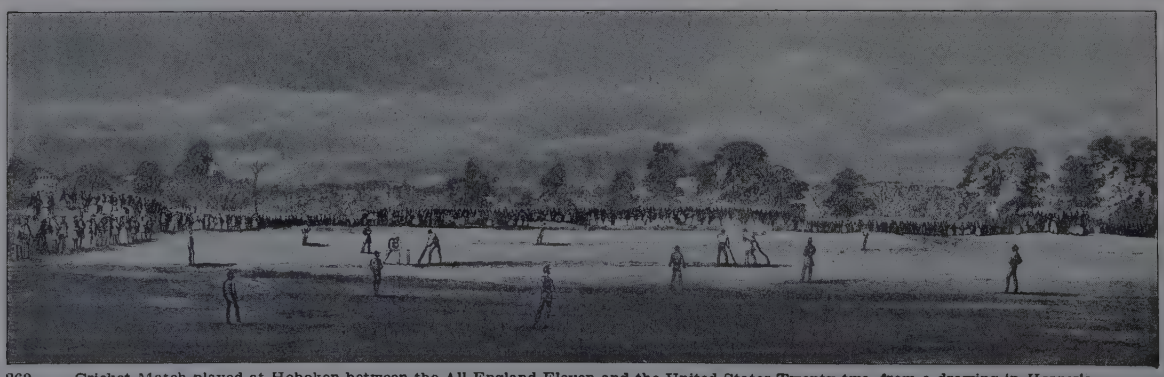
268 Cricket Match between the United States and Canada at Hoboken, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, October 4, 1856

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF CRICKET

The team at bat sends a man to defend each wicket, while a member of the side in the field bowls from his station within the bowling crease of one wicket at the wicket opposite him. When six balls have been delivered, the direction of the bowling is reversed and the other batsman defends his wicket. Runs are scored whenever the ball is hit a sufficient distance to permit the two batters to exchange places before the ball is returned to the wicket. Certain errors on the part of the bowler or the wicket-keeper also add to the total of the batsman's score. The fielders occupy positions in the field which seem most advantageous from the standpoint of keeping down the score. Frequent shifts are made during the contest under the direction of the captain, who is also field general, in order to meet the peculiarities of individual batters or to play a particular type of bowling properly. The bowler and the wicket-keeper bear some resemblance to the battery in baseball, but the responsibilities of the wicket-keeper are different from those of the catcher in the American game. The other fielders are known from the respective posts as long stop, short slip, point, long slip, cover point, middle wicket, long field off, long field on, and leg.

INTERNATIONAL MATCHES

The enthusiasm of American cricketers seemed to wax and wane with the periodic international matches. Beginning in 1853 an annual series was arranged with Canadian elevens, the matches being played alternately in cities of the two nations. The grounds of the St. George Club at Hoboken or one of the fields near Philadelphia was usually the scene of the contest when the United States was host to visiting teams. In 1859 an eleven representing the best English professional players met twenty-two selected from American clubs in several matches which attracted throngs almost as large and socially more prominent than the crowds attending the baseball games in New York and Boston. Interrupted by the Civil War, the international contests were resumed in 1868 with the visit of a second team from England, and four years later W. G. Grace, one of the greatest cricketers of all time, brought his famous team to test Americans and Canadians. The contests with Canadian elevens were renewed in 1879 by the Cricketers' Association of the United States.



269 Cricket Match played at Hoboken between the All England Eleven and the United States Twenty-two, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, October 15, 1859

THE HALIFAX CUP

270 The International Cricket Match at Philadelphia, from a drawing by S. G. McCutcheon in *Harper's Weekly*, November 1, 1879

All of the fine traditions which the American yachtsman associated with the *America's* Cup was symbolized for the cricketer in the trophy known as the Halifax Cup. It was originally won in 1874 by a picked team from the clubs in the Philadelphia district, which accepted the invitation of Captain N. C. Wallace of the 60th Royal Rifles, stationed at Halifax, to play a series of matches with British and Canadian elevens for an international prize. After the victory of the American team, the possession of the cup became the objective of a lively competition between the important cricket clubs in Philadelphia. Under the auspices of the Associated Cricket Clubs of Philadelphia the matches for the Halifax Cup speedily developed into the outstanding event of the cricket season, with the rivalry generally keenest between the Philadelphia, Merion, Belmont and Germantown clubs. In recent years, however, the Staten Island, Frankford and Westchester-Biltmore teams have been prominent in the competition.

THE PHILADELPHIA CRICKETERS

The success of picked teams from the United States in the annual matches with Canadian elevens, a series which had been revived in 1879, encouraged the cricketers of Philadelphia to undertake an invasion of Great Britain. Of the prospective tour there was some criticism on the ground that international contests tended to discourage public interest in the rivalry of local clubs and to fix attention upon the accomplishment of selected elevens representing an exclusive group of cricketers. *Harper's Weekly* sounded the note of approval, however, in its issue of May 24, 1884: "Despite the oft-repeated assertion that the noble game of cricket has but a very modest clientage in this country, a party of Philadelphia gentlemen have thought it well to arrange for a trip through Great Britain this summer for the purpose of meeting the most distinguished of English country amateurs on their own tented fields and at their own national sport. Exempt from all suspicion of professionalism, and having stipulated from the first that gate-money receipts should not set a price on their performances, they will be received in England as gentlemen sportsmen in search of a pleasant holiday, and socially will be entertained as such." Though they were recognized as pleasure seekers, their fame as admirable players of the game had already been carried back by those English elevens, both professional and amateur, who had tried conclusions with the teams in America's nursery of cricket—Philadelphia. The performance of the American eleven was not disappointing. In Ireland, Scotland, and against some of the strongest county teams in England they won many of their matches, revealing that the standard of cricket in the United States, in spite of the lack of interest in the sport, was equal to that of Great Britain. There was particular gratification in the fact that all of the American players had learned the game in an American club.

271 The Philadelphia cricket team, from an engraving after a photograph, in *Harper's Weekly*, May 24, 1884

272 The Newhalls, from an engraving after a photograph, in *Harper's Weekly*, June 22, 1889

THE NEWHALLS

Of all the cricketers who distinguished themselves in international matches or in the competition for the Halifax Cup, few were more popular with the spectators and participants than the Newhall brothers. Six of the ten sons of Thomas A. Newhall of Germantown were gifted with unusual versatility on the cricket field. In the days before the Civil War, Walter and Harry were active in the Young America Cricket Club, but it was the quartette of younger brothers whose fame spread from this country to Canada and the British Isles during the quarter century after 1860. At the age of fourteen George M. Newhall was regarded as one of the few effective bowlers in the Philadelphia amateur ranks and he became an expert batsman before the close of his active career in 1880. Charles, Daniel, and Robert Newhall were all members of the team which won the international trophy at Halifax in 1874, each participating subsequently in most of the important matches played by his particular club. Charles was a fast round arm bowler, Robert's forte was defense of the wicket, while Daniel displayed skill in the field and rare judgment as team captain. Off the playing field as well as on it, the Newhalls were enthusiastic exponents of cricket. In 1877 Daniel was aided by Henry H. Brown and Henry Cope in founding the *American Cricketer*, which continues to be the official journal of the sport. At the same time the brothers were active in organizing the Cricketers' Association of the United States as an agency to arouse interest in the game which they were eager to make popular.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE

The grounds for the school at Haverford, which later developed into Haverford College, were landscaped in 1836 by an English gardener who included in his plans ample accommodation for those boys desiring to play cricket. Having provided the playing field, the gardener was also willing to instruct the students in the fundamentals of the English game. From this simple origin there developed at Haverford a cricket tradition which has survived several periods of adversity. Not until the decade of the 'fifties did the cricket clubs, receiving support from the Philadelphia cricketers, become an important factor in the life of the school. At first competition was confined to intra-mural contests, or an occasional practice game with an eleven from one of the Philadelphia clubs, but in 1874 an intercollegiate match with the team representing the University of Pennsylvania inaugurated a new era. Except for the lapse of a few years teams from Haverford have continued to compete with the more important elevens in the East, and many a player of note in the Philadelphia district has learned the game on the college field.

273 Haverford Cricket Team, 1926, from a photograph, courtesy of Haverford College

INTERCOLLEGIATE CRICKET ASSOCIATION

274 Haverford Cricket Field, from a photograph, courtesy of Haverford College

HAVERFORD remained almost unique among American schools and colleges in its devotion to cricket as a major sport. During the latter part of the decade of the 'fifties interest in the game was temporarily stimulated by the appearance of *Tom Brown's School Days* with its graphic account of the great match between the Rugby eleven and the eleven from the Marylebone Club. The visit of the British professionals in 1859 was the immediate occasion for the organization of a team at the University of Virginia and the strengthening of the cricket club at the University of Pennsylvania, where the sport was heir to the enthusiasm of the Philadelphia cricketers. Not until twenty years later, however, were the Boston and New York clubs able to interest students at Harvard and Columbia. At the latter institution the sport was more closely attached to the metropolitan cricket clubs than to intercollegiate competition. With the advent of the game at Harvard an intercollegiate cricket association was formed, including Haverford and the University of Pennsylvania. Since 1887 the association has maintained its annual schedule of matches, training in the process many outstanding players who have earned fame in the international contests of recent years. The enthusiastic devotees of cricket never wearied in their attempts to make the game popular with American spectators. Some felt that a revision of the rules was necessary in order to meet the oft-repeated criticism that cricket was slow and monotonous.

275 John Borland Thayer, 1862–1912, from a photograph in the New York Public Library

THE INTER-CITY LEAGUE

ACTIVE among the proponents of modification was John B. Thayer of Philadelphia, who strongly endorsed a plan to alternate teams at bat whenever three batters had been put out. This would inaugurate the same type of innings as baseball and would relieve the monotony which was apt to result from one team batting for a considerable time before the other had an opportunity to score any runs. Several clubs experimented with this innovation after 1890, but they invariably returned to the standard rules of play. Another group felt that a leaf should be taken from the book of baseball by organizing competition on a sectional basis. Consequently, in 1891 the Inter-City Cricket League was formed with a western circuit composed of Chicago, Detroit and Pittsburgh, and an eastern group including New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Baltimore. In the first intersectional contest between the two circuits, Chicago was badly beaten by Philadelphia. On the Pacific Coast the California Cricket Association flourished in the 'nineties and competition among the teams for the Harrison Championship Cup developed a high standard of play. Although numerous leagues and associations constituted a valuable influence in the western states, they failed to bring spectators to the sectional matches in numbers comparable to the crowds which followed the rivalry of their favorite teams on the diamond.

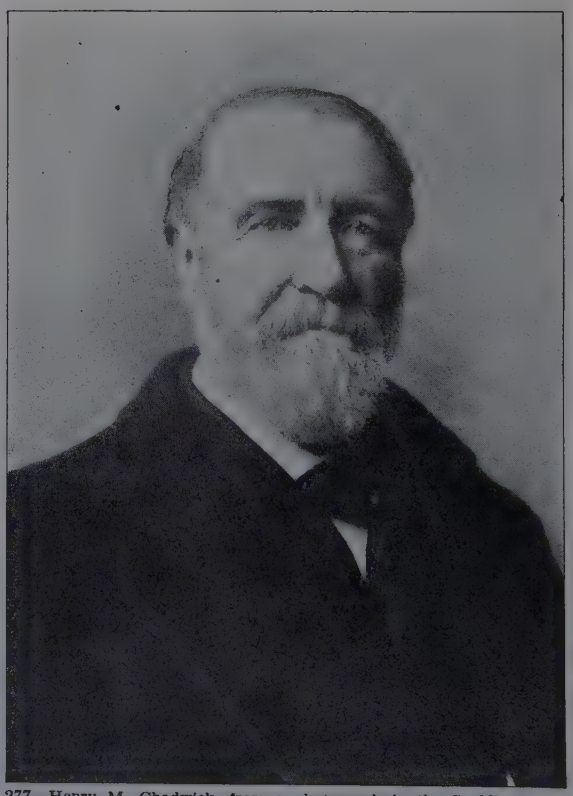
276 Germantown Cricket Club, from a photograph. © Architectural Book Publishing Co., New York

THE CONTRIBUTION OF CRICKET

Cricket has always been an exotic in this country. In the nineteenth century it was revived by players of British nativity and its success has been limited to those communities in which the English tradition has been particularly strong. Its champions point with pride to the several leagues and associations which supervise play in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, and the cities of the Pacific Coast, but the average American boy has never seen a cricket field and the readers of the modern sporting page seldom learn the merits of the game or the feats of its heroes. Yet the contribution of cricket has not been insignificant. It has set through its amateur representatives the high standard of sport for sport's sake. Branded as a game for gentlemen of leisure, it has not capitulated to the demand for speed and economy of time. Its adherents still prefer the satisfaction of seeing good form and skill at the wicket or in the bowling crease, rather than the nervous stimulation which comes from the vigorous action and uncertainty of result in the more popular sports. Into the twentieth century the cricket clubs have carried some of the flavor of the days when the Marylebone Club was young.

HENRY M. CHADWICK, 1824–1908

Henry Chadwick, who came to Brooklyn from England at the age of thirteen, was representative of many in this country whose interest in cricket was overshadowed by their later devotion to baseball. In the decade after 1840 he played both games in the Elysian Fields at Hoboken, where he devised a method of scoring which enabled him to record baseball contests with accuracy. In 1856 he began to report cricket matches for the *New York Clipper*, adding to his duties eight years later when he undertook to furnish the *New York Herald* with accounts of the important baseball games. For more than forty years he continued to write authoritatively on the game, serving as an indefatigable compiler of statistics, but he never adopted the lighter vein which distinguished the work of a later generation of reporters. What his accounts lacked in sprightliness, they made up in earnestness, for he sprinkled them liberally with timely denunciations of fradulent practices and other tendencies inimical to the sport. His services were recognized by the baseball men of the country when they inscribed on his monument in 1908 "Father of Baseball."



277 Henry M. Chadwick, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

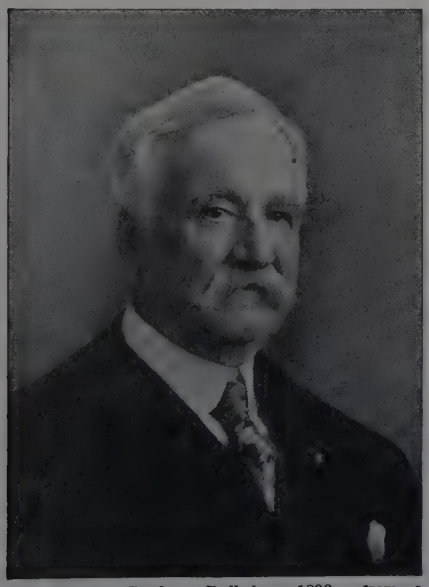
THE MAN WHO SAVED THE GAME

The baneful influences which Chadwick never tired of denouncing were clearly recognized by William A. Hulbert, a Chicago business man, who entered upon his career as a club owner in 1875 when patronage had fallen off and public confidence in professional baseball was at low ebb. Hulbert had never been a player, and he insisted that a sharp line of distinction should be drawn between the business management of the clubs and the art of the player on the diamond. The failure to make this distinction he believed was responsible for the inability of the existing clubs to cope with betting, pool selling, and drunkenness which were discrediting the professional game. As president of the Chicago team he declared war on these evils and then set about to build up a team of experts. With the aid of A. G. Spalding he recruited Barnes, McVey, and White from Boston, Anson and Sutton from the Athletics, and added them to the nucleus of Hines, Glenn, and Peters to form one of the strongest nines of the day.

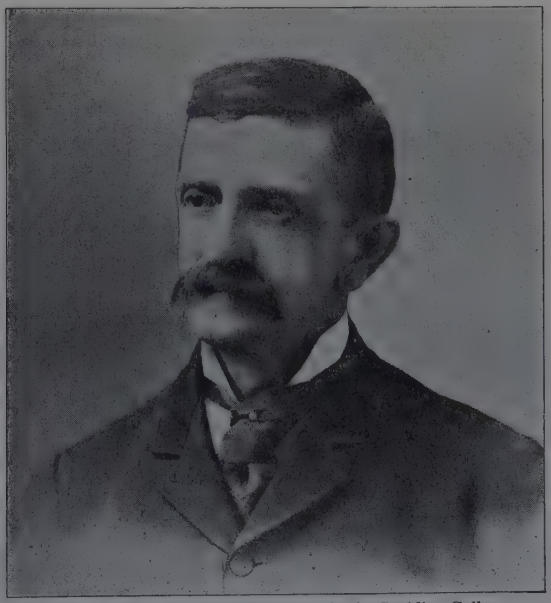
278 William A. Hulbert, from a drawing in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE BIRTH OF THE NATIONAL LEAGUE

At the close of the first season for the new Chicago team, Hulbert determined to challenge the dominance of the eastern clubs in organized baseball. With the carefully drafted constitution of a proposed reorganization, which was acceptable to several western clubs, he went east to meet the presidents of the Athletics, Mutuals, Bostons and Hartfords, who had agreed to attend a conference at the Grand Central Hotel in New York City on the morning of February 2, 1876. There, behind locked doors, the business man from Chicago unfolded his plans so persuasively that his audience before it left the room voted to approve the creation of the National League of Professional Baseball Clubs. Morgan G. Bulkeley, president of the Hartford Baseball Club, later elected Governor of Connecticut, was chosen as first president of the new organization and Nicholas E. Young was named secretary. Hulbert's influence, however, was paramount. The constitution and by-laws regulated club membership in the League, stipulated the standard form of a player's contract, established a disciplinary code to be enforced by a club and League officials, and prohibited bookmaking, pool selling, and sale of intoxicants at ball parks under the League's jurisdiction. The first circuit recognized by the League was composed of teams representing four western and four eastern cities: Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, Philadelphia, New York, Hartford and Boston.



279 Morgan Gardner Bulkeley, 1838–, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library



280 Nicholas Young, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION'S RECORD.

Below are given exhaustive statistics of the American Association's championship season of 1887:

	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Baltimore	Louisville	Athletic	Brooklyn	Metropolitan	Cleveland	Totals
Victories	96	81	77	76	64	60	44	39	536
Defeats	40	54	58	60	69	74	89	92	536
Games played	135	135	135	136	133	134	133	131	536
Games drawn	3	1	6	3	4	4	5	2	14
Clubs blanked	6	11	7	2	5	3	1	2	37
Times blanked	2	2	2	3	0	6	16	6	37
Series won	6	5	5	6	2	2	0	1	27
Series lost	1	2	2	1	5	4	6	6	27
Series tied	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
Home victories	56	47	43	44	41	36	26	23	316
Home defeats	12	26	21	24	27	37	33	40	220
Victories abro'd	39	34	34	32	23	24	18	16	220
Defeats abroad	28	28	37	36	42	37	56	52	316
10 inning	1	3	3	3	1	3	5	1	20
11 inning	2	1	0	1	0	0	2	2	8
12 inning	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
13 inning	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
14 inning	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Per c't of vict's	.704	.600	.570	.559	.481	.448	.331	.298	

281 From the *New York Times*, December 5, 1887

NATIONAL LEAGUE RECORD.

The statistics of the past championship season of the National League, showing the work performed by each club, are below given:

	Detroit	Philadelphia	Chicago	New York	Boston	Pittsburg	Washington	Indianapolis	Totals
Victories	79	75	71	68	61	55	46	37	492
Defeats	45	48	50	55	60	69	76	89	492
Games played	124	123	121	123	121	124	122	126	492
Drawn games	2	5	3	6	2	1	4	1	12
Series won	6	4	6	4	3	2	0	1	26
Series lost	1	2	1	3	3	4	6	6	26
Series tied	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	2
Victories home	44	38	44	36	39	31	26	24	282
Victories abro'd	35	37	27	32	22	24	20	13	210
Defeats home	17	23	18	26	22	33	32	29	210
Defeats abroad	28	25	32	29	38	36	44	50	282
Clubs blanked	3	7	4	5	4	4	3	4	34
Times blanked	2	2	2	5	5	6	6	6	34
Double fig. vic.	38	28	24	21	22	7	10	14	164
Single fig. vic.	41	47	47	47	39	48	36	23	328
10-inn'g games	5	3	3	4	6	3	6	6	36
11 inn'g games	1	0	0	0	1	3	1	0	6
12-inn'g games	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	4
13-inn'g games	1	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	6
14-inn'g games	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
Won by 1 run	10	16	15	19	10	19	10	13	112
Lost by 1 run	11	11	10	13	15	17	15	18	110
Highest score	21	24	19	29	28	23	23	18	
Per cent. of vic	.637	.610	.587	.553	.504	.444	.377	.294	
Batting av'age	.350	.321	.321	.330	.323	.280	.285	.293	
Fieldi'g av'age	.926	.919	.910	.918	.897	.917	.912	.913	

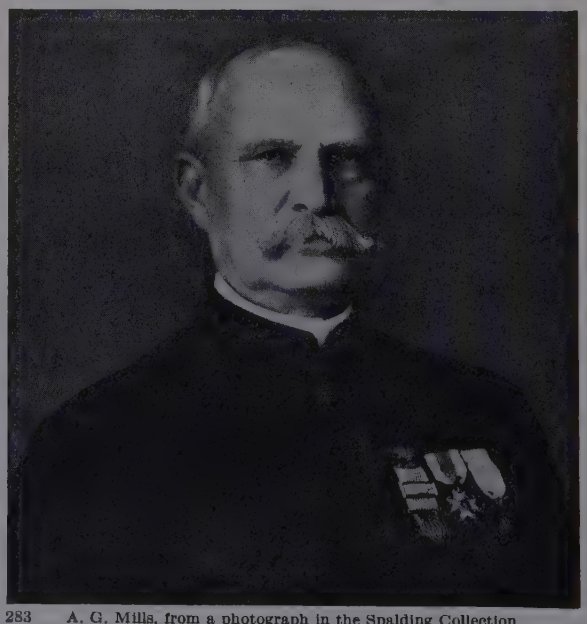
282 From the *New York Times*, December 5, 1887

THE RÉGIME OF HULBERT

During the second year of the National League's existence William M. Hulbert was elected president and began a relentless warfare against the machinations of gamblers and dishonest players. The disciplinary code was rigidly enforced, both in the case of individual players and entire clubs. Under the League rules Hulbert expelled the New York and Philadelphia organizations and barred a number of Louisville players from participation in the games played by the teams belonging to the circuit. His reforming zeal was but the corollary of his desire to make the National League supreme in professional baseball. He supported every innovation which seemed likely to improve the game, introducing the regular season schedule of contests and encouraging sportsmanlike rivalry between the various clubs under his jurisdiction. It was a period of financial difficulty, but for five years Hulbert managed to meet every emergency, leaving the League firmly established at the expiration of his term of service.

THE NATIONAL AGREEMENT

Several short-lived minor leagues were formed during Hulbert's presidency, but in 1882 a new organization attacked the financial policy of the major circuit. Claiming that an admission charge of fifty cents made baseball a "rich man's game," the promoters of the American Association announced their intention of offering the public good contests for twenty-five cents. The National League stood its ground, but recognized the rival circuit by entering into a national agreement with it. The terms of this understanding were formulated for the most part by A. G. Mills, a member of the old Olympic Club of Washington, D. C., who was elected president of the National League in 1882. In general, it established the relationship between the American Association, the National League and other professional baseball clubs. An attempt was made to secure uniformity in players' contracts, in disciplinary methods and in the buying and selling of players' services. All disputes arising under the agreement were submitted to a board of arbitration.



283 A. G. Mills, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

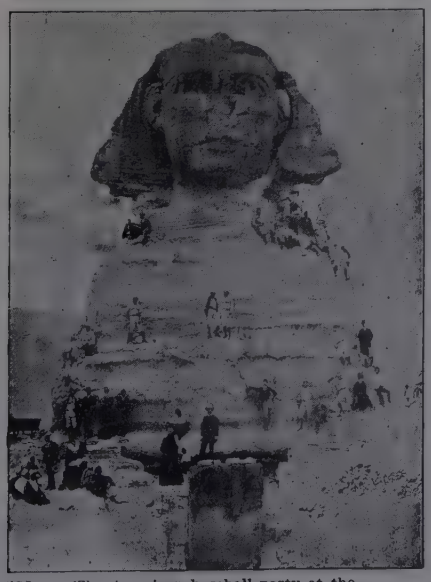
284 The Boston Baseball Club, from an engraving after a photograph, in *Harper's Weekly*, October 13, 1883

PROSPEROUS YEARS

Baseball shared in the general prosperity of the nation during the decade of the 'eighties. The competition between the American Association and the National League resulted in a series of post-season games in 1883 between the leading teams in the two organizations for the title of "world's champions." For the next seven years this title was the bone of contention between the pennant-winning nines of the two circuits with the victory generally won by the representatives of the National League. From the standpoint of officials and club owners popular interest in the pennant races and world series games was highly gratifying. Boston reported "throngs" of five thousand spectators witnessing a single game, while the opening game of 1886 in New York attracted nearly ten thousand, the largest crowd recorded at any ball park in the first decade of the National League's existence.

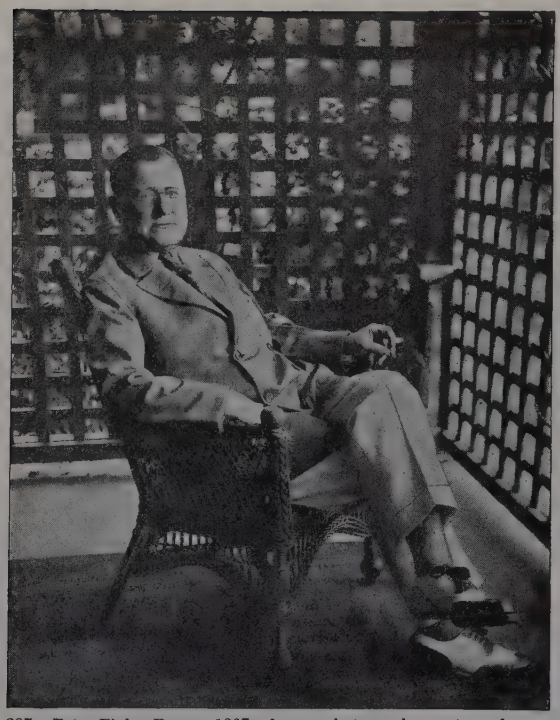
THE TRIP AROUND THE WORLD

At the close of the financially profitable season of 1888 A. G. Spalding and several associates organized a round-the-world tour for a group of representative American players. Anson's Chicago White Sox and a selected team from other National League clubs were scheduled to play a series of exhibition games. In Australia they received a cordial welcome, while in Ceylon, along the Nile, and in the Italian cities they played before crowds of curious if not comprehending spectators. The cricket devotees of Great Britain, some of whom remembered the first baseball invasion of 1874, pronounced the American game second only to their own favorite sport, but few of them were convinced of its superiority. The chief benefit of the tour to professional baseball was the material which it furnished to a small group of reporters who were beginning to make their stories interesting to newspaper readers at home.



285 The American baseball party at the Sphinx, from a photograph

286 Albert Goodwill Spalding, 1850–1915, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library



287 Peter Finley Dunne, 1867–, from a photograph, courtesy of *Vanity Fair*, New York

THE NEW PUBLICITY

Whether the club owners realized it or not, one of the chief reasons for the successful years immediately following 1883 was the transformation which occurred in the newspaper accounts of events on the diamond. Early reports of games were no more readable than the statistics of the stock market, for they contained little beyond the scores and a brief statement of the result without descriptive material of any sort. A trio of Chicago reporters may be regarded as pioneers in the work of humanizing baseball news. Shortly after 1883 Leonard Washburn, Peter Finley Dunne, who earned national fame as the creator of Mr. Dooley, and Charles Seymour began to write their entertaining stories of Anson's White Stockings for the Chicago papers. In Cincinnati, St. Louis, and other western cities a school of writers, able to dramatize the interesting and amusing features of the game, quickly aroused their readers to a consciousness of baseball as a spectacle. The East, paying more attention to details and training experts in the sport, was slow to follow the Chicago lead, but its scribes gradually abandoned the stereotyped drabness of the early records for a more entertaining narrative.

THE REVOLT OF THE PLAYERS

Prosperity was but the prelude to disaster for the magnates. In 1885 the National Brotherhood of Baseball Players was organized under the leadership of John Montgomery Ward, a versatile and shrewd member of the New York Club, for the purpose of promoting fraternal relations between players. For several years the Brotherhood manifested no hostility to the interests of the club owners, contenting itself with a mild protest against the reserve rule, which prevented certain designated players from selling their services where they pleased. But in 1889 a manifesto was given to the public, declaring that the players were "bought, sold and exchanged like sheep rather than treated as American citizens." The owners of organized baseball were informed that the Brotherhood had decided to form its own league and enter into competition with the men who had used the players "like slaves." The next year the new league was organized with most of the players of the National League and many from the American Association as members. For two years baseball was in the throes of a costly war. In the spring of 1891, when it became evident that neither faction could win, a truce was arranged on the basis of peace without victory. The American Association had suffered as a result of the strife, though it was not as directly involved as the National League. When the older circuit refused to aid it in 1891, the junior organization collapsed. Four of its clubs, Baltimore, Cleveland, Louisville, and Washington were added to the National League, forming a twelve-club circuit.

288 John Montgomery Ward, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

THE FORMATION OF THE AMERICAN LEAGUE

289 Byron Bancroft Johnson, from a photograph, courtesy of *Baseball*, New York

THE period following the Brotherhood war was a time of financial stringency for the club owners. Spectators came back slowly to the ball parks after the years of strife. Just as the sport seemed to be regaining its popularity, the Spanish-American War interfered with the financial calculations of the investors. Believing that the twelve-club system was partially the cause of the trouble, the officials of the National League agreed to drop the four newer clubs and revert to an eight-club circuit. Thus the season of 1900 was opened with the same clubs that comprise the National League of today — Boston, Brooklyn, Cincinnati, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and St. Louis. The dropping of the four clubs from their position in the League gave an enthusiastic westerner, who had played baseball and written about it, the chance for which he had been waiting. Taking all but Louisville as a nucleus, Byron Bancroft Johnson formed the American League by adding clubs from Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Philadelphia and St. Louis. In 1902 the Baltimore franchise was taken by New York and the present league was formed.

290 August Herrman, courtesy of Cullen Cain, National League of Professional Baseball Clubs, New York

THE NATIONAL COMMISSION

WITHIN three years of its formation the American League was recognized as a major circuit in baseball. It joined the National League and an association representing the minor leagues in the formulation of a new national agreement, based in large part upon the agreement of 1882. The most important innovation was the creation of a National Commission, composed of the presidents of the two major leagues and a third party, to act as the arbiter in all disputed matters pertaining to organized baseball. In the case of controversy between the two major leagues the chairman of the Commission was given supreme power. As organized in 1903 the National Commission was composed of H. C. Pulliam, president of the National League, B. B. Johnson, president of the American League, and August Herrman, president of the Cincinnati Club.

THE FEDERAL LEAGUE WAR

A DECADE after the creation of the National Commission organized baseball passed through a period of war. A group of financiers, having concluded that there were unrealized opportunities in the game, undertook to organize a third major circuit. Invading the territory of the two major leagues and the American Association, they organized clubs in Brooklyn, Baltimore, Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Indianapolis, Chicago, St. Louis and Kansas City. The appeal of the new organization was based principally on the dissatisfaction of many players with the way in which club owners were permitted to dispose of their "property rights" in the services of players. Officials of the Federal League offered to correct the abuses of the old system. War began in the spring of 1914, when the new league put eight teams in the field. During the second season, however, when financial disaster loomed, peace was declared. The Federal League disbanded, but most of its clubs were cared for in the existing major and minor circuits.

291 President Gilmore of the Federal League (center), from a photograph, courtesy of *Baseball*, New York

292 Charles Comiskey, from a photograph, courtesy of *Baseball*, New York

THE NADIR OF DISGRACE

For many years it had been the proud boast of the friends of organized baseball that, whatever the financial vicissitudes of the club owners, the ranks of the players were recruited from the highest type of honest sportsmen. Then came ugly rumors in the autumn of 1919. It was whispered about that the White Sox had deliberately thrown games to the Cincinnati Reds, who won the world's championship that year. Charles Comiskey, president of the Chicago Club, worked indefatigably to establish the truth or falsity of the charges. After a year sufficient evidence was collected to bring about the confession of several White Sox players, who admitted incriminating negotiations with notorious professional gamblers. The guilty players were barred forever from organized baseball, but the damage had been done. The confidence of the public in the competence of baseball officials as well as in the honesty of the players was shaken. There was so much adverse criticism of the National Commission that a majority of the club owners in the two major leagues demanded a radical change in the supreme control of the sport.

THE NEW DICTATOR

Among the many suggestions which poured in upon baseball officialdom after the scandal of 1919, one was heartily approved by the presidents of all the National League clubs and three of the American League clubs. The remaining five executives refused at first to accept the so-called Lasker plan to create a super-commission of three persons, unconnected with the sport, to make the final decision in all disputes and to wield supreme power in settling ethical questions. Late in 1920 when matters seemed to have drifted into an impasse, a solution was found by substituting one man, Judge Kenesaw Mountain Landis, for the commission of three. It was agreed that Judge Landis should act as sole commissioner with supreme power, that the old National Commission should be dissolved, and that a new national agreement binding for twenty-five years should be signed by the two major leagues. When Judge Landis assumed control of organized baseball in 1921, he was federal judge for the northern district of Illinois. His career upon the bench had been characterized by courage and independence of judgment, which have stood him in good stead as an arbiter of baseball's disputes. Although he had never been connected with the sport, except as an amateur player in his youthful days in Logansport, Indiana, he quickly familiarized himself with the intricacies of its organization and became an enthusiastic spectator of games in all parts of the country. Without fear or favor he has adjudicated the cases, some of them delicate and difficult, which have come within his jurisdiction.

293 E. S. Barnard, president of the American League, Kenesaw M. Landis, and John Heydler, president of the National League, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, Chicago Bureau

METHODS OF PITCHING

294 Method of giving rotary motion to the ball, from a diagram in Henry Chadwick, *The Art of Pitching*, New York, 1885

WHILE the club owners were perfecting the business organization of baseball, the players were improving constantly the style of play on the diamond. One of the most important developments occurred in the methods of pitching. The early rules called for a straight arm delivery with the "arm swinging perpendicularly," but few pitchers followed the instructions literally. By 1866 the underhand throw had been developed which made possible the perfection of the curve. Edmund Davis, a young player at Princeton, and Arthur Cummings, who pitched for the Brooklyn Excelsiors, seem to have been the first to curve the ball effectively. Their curves brought a pronouncement from the baseball convention of 1867 which reaffirmed the straight arm delivery. In the decade after 1870 modifications in the rules were made which gave the pitchers a wider latitude in underhand throwing, but it was not until 1884 that all restrictions regarding the method of delivering the ball were removed. The freedom thus granted to pitchers resulted in the rapid development of the outcurve, incurve, drop and fadeaway. When the curve was first introduced, there had been a spirited controversy among players and scientists as to the reality of the phenomenon. Demonstration soon proved that the ball did not always travel in a straight line. As it rotates on its axis from the twist given when it leaves the pitcher's hand, one side is traveling forward against the air resistance of the force of the delivery and the other is pulling away from that force. In the case of the outcurve by a right-handed pitcher the compression of the air comes normally against the right side of the ball and deflects it to the left, causing an outcurve.

FIG. 8. STRAIGHT DELIVERY.

Grasp the ball securely between the first and second fingers with the thumb on the opposite side, the other fingers being closed in the palm of the hand. Deliver the ball to the batsman with all possible speed, either by a straight throw from the shoulder or by an underhand throw at a level with the waist. In this, as well as all other deliveries of the ball, the pitcher should exert himself to retain absolute command of the ball if possible.

295 Straight delivery, from a diagram in Henry Chadwick, *The Art of Pitching*, New York, 1885

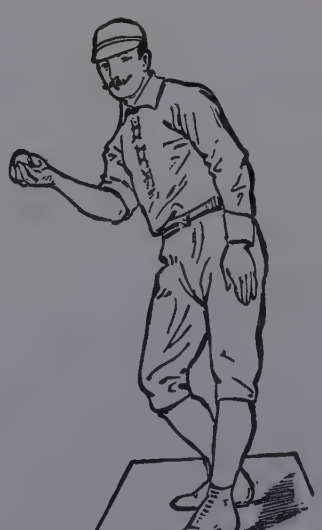


FIG. 9 OUT-CURVE.

Secure the ball in the hand by pressing it firmly between the first two fingers and the thumb, with the third and little fingers closed in the palm of the hand. In delivering the ball to the batsman throw the arm forward midway between the shoulder and waist, and at the moment of releasing the ball, turn or twist the hand quickly to the left.

296 The outcurve, from a diagram in Henry Chadwick, *The Art of Pitching*, New York, 1885

297 Christy Mathewson, 1880–1925, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

MASTERS OF THE NEW PITCHING

Of the generation of pitchers prior to the Brotherhood war, Clarkson of Chicago and Keefe of New York were outstanding. Both used curves and change of pace effectively, while the latter perfected a fadeaway which was not surpassed until the days of Mathewson. At the turn of the century came Amos Rusie of the Giants and Cy Young of Cleveland and Boston, combining mechanical skill with well planned strategy to set a standard of performance which few of their contemporaries equaled. In the last twenty years as pitching has become a vital factor in team success, many have won fame in the pitcher's box, but few have added so much to the best traditions of the game as Christy Mathewson and Walter Johnson.

BEHIND THE BAT

During the early years of the National League's existence the catcher became a much more important factor in the performance of the team. Originally, he had received the pitched balls with bare hands, standing at a considerable distance behind the plate, where he was able to catch balls on the first bounce. In 1869 Allison of the Cincinnati Red Stockings began to wear a glove and the practice soon became common. It was not until 1877 that the mask was first worn by James Tyng, catcher for the Harvard Baseball Club. This protective device, invented by Fred W. Thayer of Boston, made it possible for the catcher to watch more carefully the runners on the bases. No one did more to set the style of play behind the bat than William Ewing, popularly known as "Buck." A native of Cincinnati, he played on teams in that city and in Troy, New York, until 1883 when he joined the New York Club with Tim Keefe, the famous pitcher. Ewing was swift and accurate in his throws to the bases, a heavy batter and a clever base runner. In the decade of the 'nineties Roger Bresnahan, converted from a pitcher to a catcher, became a player of great ingenuity in the new position. To him is due the credit for devising the shin guards now worn by the men behind the bat.

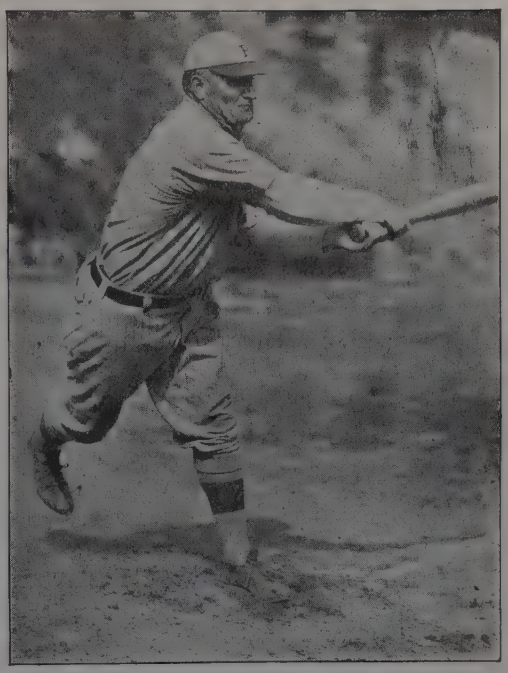
298 William Ewing, from a wash drawing by Thure de Thulstrup, in *Harper's Weekly*, November 9, 1889

299 Adrian C. ("Pop") Anson, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

ADRIAN C. ANSON

The fame of Adrian C. Anson, familiarly known as "Cap" or "Pop," has become one of the traditions of American baseball. Entering the professional ranks as a member of the old Athletics in Philadelphia, Anson became captain and manager of the Chicago nine in 1877, positions which he held for twenty-one years. An excellent first baseman of the older school, he was also gifted as a leader able to inspire his players and win the confidence of the spectators. In 1882 his team won its third consecutive championship, and after a lapse of two years led the league in two more pennant races. Managerial duties did not interfere with Anson's skill as an infielder or detract from the batting power which placed him at the head of the league batters in 1881 and 1887.

IMPROVING INFIELD PLAY



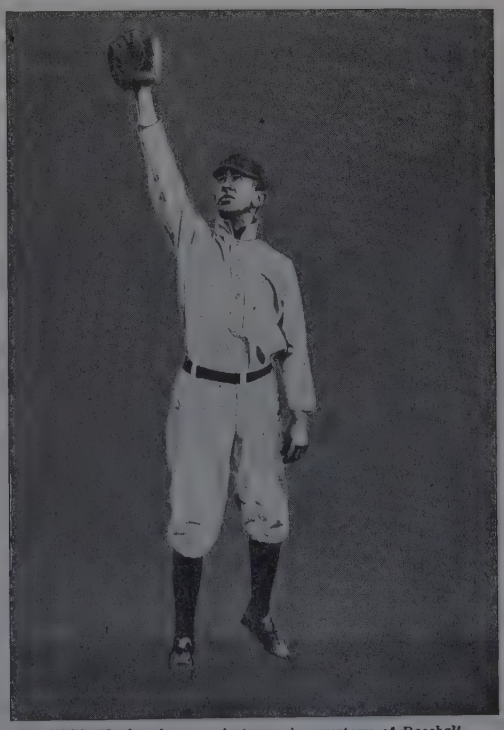
300 Hans Wagner, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

Although Anson was regarded as the greatest first baseman of his day, the man who revolutionized the style of play at the initial sack was Charles Comiskey. While playing with the St. Louis Browns, he changed first base from a mere receiving station to a fielding position. That he might cover more territory, he played at some distance from the bag, relying upon the pitcher to cover it when the play was close. A high standard of second base play was set in the 'nineties by Pfeffer of the White Sox and McPhee of the Cincinnati Reds. The latter insisted on fielding his position bare-handed as late as 1895, though twenty years before Charle Waite of the Boston Club had used one of the first fielder's gloves. During the same period two of the greatest shortstops were beginning their careers, Hugh Jennings and Hans Wagner. Jennings contributed more to the technique of fielding his position than Wagner, but the latter's remarkable ability at bat more than compensated for a certain lack of finesse in the field. There have been few unusual third basemen. James Collins, who played with the Boston Red Sox in 1903, was one of the best, both on the mechanical side and in the conception of ingenious plays.

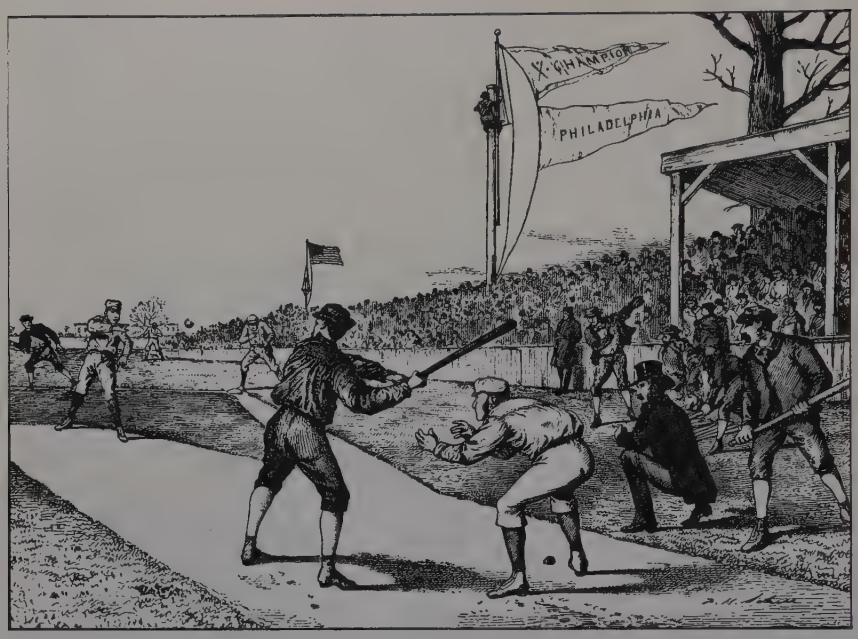
301 Hugh Jennings, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE OUTFIELD

The outfielder at the opening of the twentieth century bore slight resemblance to his prototype, who was permitted to put the runner out by catching the ball in his cap or taking it easily on the first bound. In 1871 the National Convention adopted a rule against catching the fly ball in hat or cap, and a decade later any ball not caught on the fly had to be fielded quickly enough to catch the runner on the bases. As a result the outfield was brought into close touch with the infield and coöperation between the two tended to further the development of team play. The new rules placed a premium on speed in covering a wide territory, accuracy in judging fly balls, and precision in throwing to the infield. These qualities were embodied to an unusual degree in Bill Lange, who played with the White Sox from 1894 to 1898, and Willie Keeler, a member of the Baltimore Orioles during the same period. Both were spectacular at bat and on the bases. Keeler was far-famed for his maxim, "Hit 'em where they ain't," which he exemplified by his performance at the plate.



302 Willie Keeler, from a photograph, courtesy of *Baseball*, New York



303 A heavy streak of batting, from a drawing by Frank H. Schell in *The Daily Graphic*, April 30, 1873

NEW RULES FOR THE BATTER

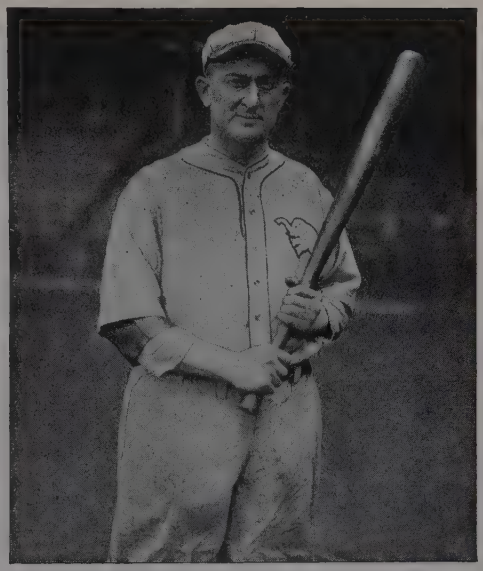
In the pre-professional days the pitcher was almost at the mercy of the batsman, for he was expected to pitch the ball knee high, waist high, or shoulder high according to the preference of the man at the plate. Even after this practice was abandoned, the batter could wait for an unlimited number of pitches until he got one to his liking. He was out on three actual strikes, and the umpire did not determine which balls were to be considered strikes. With the modification of pitching rules after 1875 there came a change. Strikes and balls were called by the umpire, and three of the former or four of the latter were the limit in the case of each batsman. In 1882 the rules convention decided that a ball which was hit foul should be considered a strike against the batter, though he was not to be declared out on such a foul unless it was caught by an opposing fielder. Though the goal of most batsmen was the long-distance hit in order to secure a home run, some players were developing methods of placing their hits in order to reach first base safely. The bunt, or short grounder in front of the plate or along the third-base line, was introduced by Pearce of the Atlantics in 1872 and was soon developed into an important element in the strategy of offense. Out of the changes in hitting there evolved a more scientific system of advancing players around the bases and a more effective coöperation between team mates in planning plays.

THE BALTIMORE ORIOLES

In a certain sense the modern game of baseball may be said to date from the 'nineties of the last century, for in that year the Baltimore Orioles under the leadership of Ned Hanlon demonstrated the possibilities of scientific team play. Devising trick plays and executing them with precision, using a code of signals to coördinate their attack, and planning their defense to meet their opponents' tactics, they won the National League pennant for three successive years after 1893. The system of "inside baseball" which Hanlon's team thus exemplified quickly supplanted the earlier reliance on a more or less haphazard combination of individual abilities. From the Orioles came some of the game's greatest strategists and most accomplished players. Their influence, even after the disbanding of the Baltimore team, was powerful in promoting scientific methods throughout organized baseball. Some of their number, notably McGraw and Jennings, carried the traditions of Hanlon's leadership into their own managerial work.

304 Ned Hanlon, from a photograph in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

TYRUS RAYMOND COBB

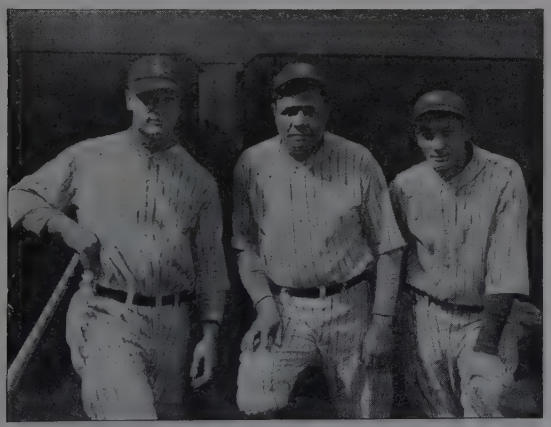


305 Tyrus Raymond Cobb, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

PROBABLY no player of the last quarter century has done more to improve the standard of hitting and base running than Ty Cobb. Early in his career with the Detroit Tigers he taught the supreme value of the place-hit in a team's attack. Twelve times in the years between 1906 and 1919 he led the American League batters. Fleet-footed and aggressive, he has been without a peer on the base lines. His mental alertness and close study of the game kept his name on the roll of valuable players after age began to diminish his speed.

THE REVIVAL OF THE HOME RUN

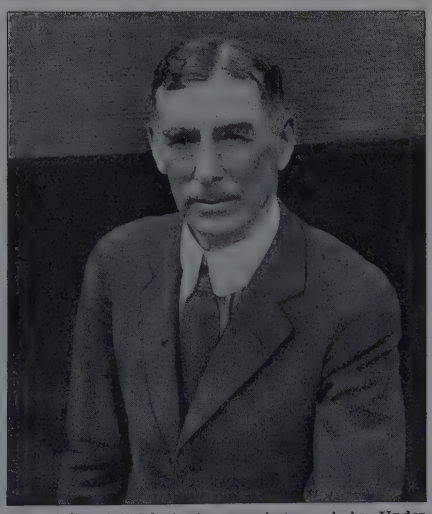
WHILE Cobb has been the exemplar of scientific batting, George H. Ruth has been busy reviving the waning prestige of the long-distance drive. From 1910 to 1918, the climax of Cobb's career, the number of home runs hit in the two major leagues steadily declined. Then came Ruth. Converted from a left-handed pitcher into a batter of amazing power, he quickly focussed public attention upon himself and his ability to hit the ball beyond the reach of the fielders. The interest in Ruth and his home runs is significant. His vigorous slugging of the ball may have had a deterring effect upon scientific hitting, but it has been a new thrill in baseball. There is in Ruth's personality so much youthful enthusiasm, so much boyish appeal, that he has helped to revive much more than the home run — the interest of American youth in the national game.



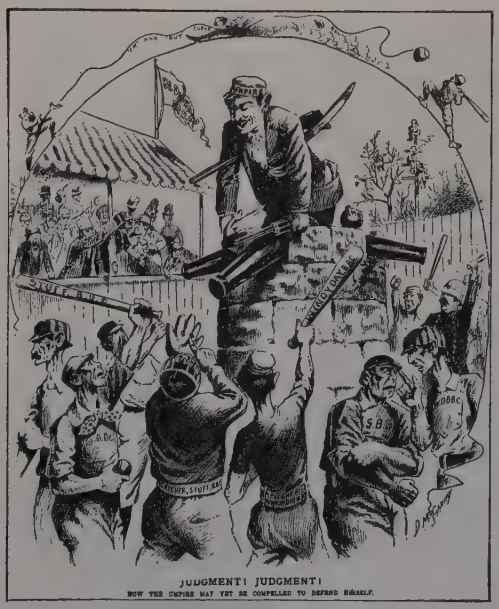
306 Lou Gehrig, George Herman Ruth and Tony Lazzeri, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE MANAGER

THE rôle of the manager has changed considerably in the years since Albert Spalding won the first National League pennant in 1876. In the early days much of the business side of the game rested upon the shoulders of the team leader. Often his chief function was to act as disciplinarian, watching with constant concern the conduct of his players off the diamond and devising ways and means to keep them sober and in condition to play. While the problem of discipline has not entirely disappeared, the worst features of former times no longer perplex the modern manager. Several of the successful leaders of teams have never played ball themselves. In the decade after 1880 James Mutrie, colorful manager of the New York club, could be seen sitting on the bench wearing a frock coat and plug hat, or rushing about the field giving orders with his long coat-tails flying in the breeze. Likewise, Frank Seelee, who led the old Boston Nationals to five pennants, was never a player. There were others, but most of the successful managers from the days of Spalding and Wright to the present have been recruited from the ranks of the players. In the last quarter century McGraw, Huggins, and Mack have established the rôle of the manager as that of a director of systematic team play, who studies the personality as well as the ability of each of his players.



307 "Connie" Mack, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



308 From the cartoon *Judgment! Judgment* in *Texas Siftings*, New York, April 21, 1888

309 The umpire, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE UMPIRE

The opening of the twentieth century may be taken as the approximate turning point in the work of the umpire. Prior to that time he was tolerated as a necessary evil. On the one side he was subject to the wrath, sometimes accompanied by physical violence, of the over-zealous spectators, and on the other side he was beset by the machinations of club owners and league officials, who frequently made his task an impossible one. Ostensibly vested with autocratic powers, he suffered too often because of lack of support from club presidents in the circuit where he officiated. With the coming of the American League matters improved, for Ban Johnson was always the friend of the honest and courageous umpire. The creation of the National Commission put an end to the obstructive tactics of club owners and gave the man officiating at games unrestricted discretion in making and enforcing his decisions. But, at best, the life of the umpire is a lonely one, for he is forced by circumstances to shut himself off from the men who play the game, lest he become partial and partisan, and he thus loses companionship with those who most intimately share his interest in the sport.

NEW GROUNDS FOR OLD

Prior to the Civil War baseball enthusiasts either stood or sat in their carriages around the edge of the diamond to witness the important matches. The accommodations provided for spectators after 1865 were more or less makeshift, consisting of a box-like structure twenty or thirty feet long with four or five rows of seats. This was frequently supplemented by benches along the first-base line, which was regarded as a choice point of vantage in the day when the umpire's rulings were confined to plays in the field. In 1882, after the Chicago nine had won its third consecutive pennant, the club owners decided to offer their patrons better accommodations. A commodious grand stand, one half of it covered by a balcony of boxes was erected behind the home plate. On each side and in the distant outfield were the "bleachers" — so-called derisively by those fortunate enough to be protected from the sun. The Chicago grounds, regarded as the first adequate ball park, accommodated less than ten thousand spectators in its grandstand.

310 New baseball grounds at Chicago, from a drawing by W. P. Snyder in *Harper's Weekly*, May 12, 1883

311 Game at the Polo Grounds, New York, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

312 View of the Yankee Stadium, New York, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

THE MODERN BALL PARK

THE modern baseball park is a product of the twentieth century. It is a symbol of the prosperity of organized baseball in the last twenty-five years. In the Brotherhood war of 1890 the representatives of the National League reported that their clubs had a total investment of six hundred thousand dollars in the game. Twenty-five years later every club in the two major circuits had more than that sum invested in its baseball property rights. Owners were willing to provide not merely adequate, but excellent, accommodations for their patrons. Large sums were spent in caring for the diamonds and in providing the best facilities for the players. Each new grounds surpassed its predecessor until the climax was reached in the stadium erected by the owners of the New York Yankees.

THE MINORS

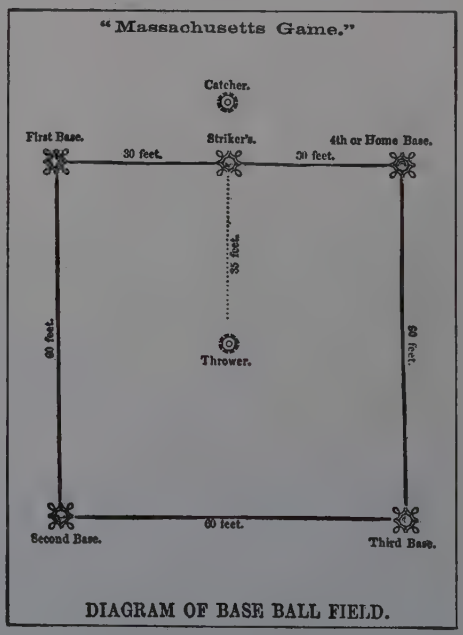
DURING the first twenty-five years of the National League's existence a large number of minor leagues, a few of which made feeble attempts to swell up to the size of a major circuit, flourished, declined, and vanished in almost bewildering confusion. Not until 1901 did the minors achieve a national organization with general supervision of their interests. In that year seven leaders among minor league officials met at Chicago and created the National Association of Professional Baseball Leagues. Fourteen leagues were charter members of the association. Classified according to the size of the cities in which their constituent clubs had teams, the leagues were subject to the decisions of a National Board of Arbitration which had jurisdiction over all disputes. In 1903 the National Association committed the minors to the National Agreement with the two major leagues, and in 1921 it ratified the action of the senior circuits in naming Judge Landis sole commissioner.

313 A Minor League Team, Milwaukee, Wis., owned by Miss Florence Killelea, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

314 Baseball game between teams of U.S.S *Wright* and U.S.S. *Doffin* at Guantanamo Bay, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE SURVIVAL OF THE AMATEUR

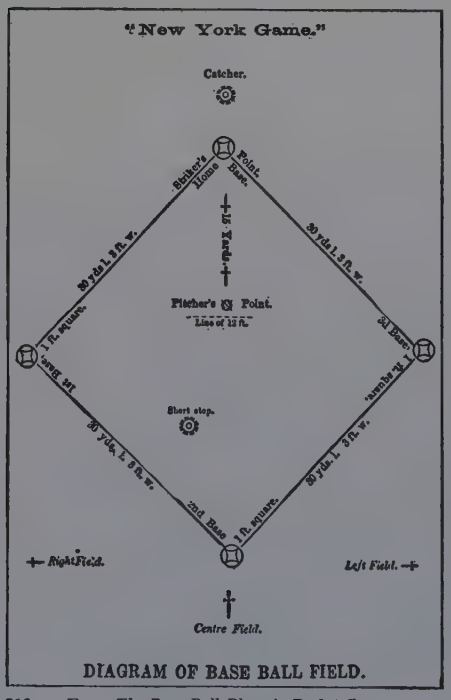
Although organized baseball has come to be regarded as a business rather than a sport, the exploits of the amateur still bulk large in the annals of the game. The coming of the professional in 1869 meant the waning of interest in the numerous amateur clubs in the country, but it did not mean the passing of the amateur player. He still remains the most significant factor in baseball. Every professional player comes from the ranks of the amateurs. By way of the back lot, the municipal playground, or the school diamond he reaches the minor or major league team. It has been good business for organized baseball to encourage and aid those who have enthusiastically promoted the formation of non-professional teams among young men and boys.



315 From *The Base Ball Player's Pocket Companion*, Boston, 1859

EARLY INTERCOLLEGIATE BASEBALL

For more than a century the college and secondary school players have been in the forefront of the amateur ranks. In the days before the Civil War the boys attending eastern academies and colleges played a game of round ball, known as Massachusetts baseball. It was particularly popular in New England, where the game designed by Doubleday was little known until after 1865. The first recorded intercollegiate contest was played under the Massachusetts rules, which permitted each team to place from fifteen to twenty players on the field. On July 1, 1859, at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, players representing the students of Amherst and Williams engaged in a twenty-six inning game, Amherst winning by the convincing score of sixty-six to thirty-two in four hours of play. The teams in each instance were chosen by ballots of the students and exhibited more energy than skill. In the latter respect they were typical of most of the pre-war teams.

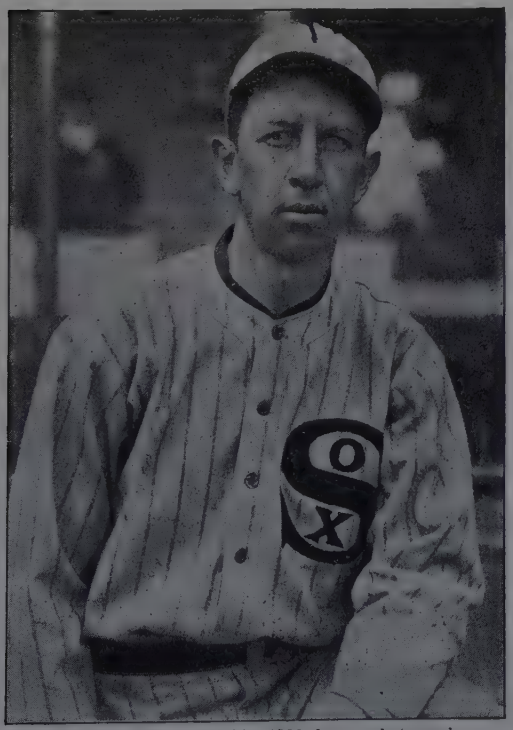


316 From *The Base Ball Player's Pocket Companion*, Boston, 1859

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERCOLLEGIATE RIVALRY

317 The Yale Nine, 1870–71, from a photograph in the Walter Camp Collection

For almost a decade after the Amherst-Williams game, baseball remained an intra-mural activity so far as the college teams were concerned. Princeton had six clubs in competition in 1860. Contests off the campus were generally with neighboring amateur clubs rather than with teams representing other schools. Not until the class of 1866 at Harvard formed a nine under the New York rules, and became recognized as the college team, did baseball in the modern sense develop into an intercollegiate sport. In 1868 Yale played both Princeton and Harvard, continuing its series with the latter institution for several years. Eleven years later the first college league was formed with Harvard, Princeton, Brown, Amherst, and Dartmouth as charter members. Yale protested because the league rules were not specific in barring the professional from competition, but joined the group in 1880 when her demands were conceded. This initial organization lasted until 1887 when Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Columbia formed the Eastern College League, a short-lived venture. In no part of the country, however, has intercollegiate competition been confined to well-established leagues.



318 Eddie Collins, Columbia, 1906, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE COLLEGIAN AND THE PROFESSIONAL

Although college baseball seems to be less highly esteemed than football by the students of the country, the quality of play has been steadily approaching the standard set by the skilled professionals. With the passing years the collegian finds it easier to bridge the gap between the campus and the major leagues. When Christy Mathewson, an alumnus of Bucknell College, was pitching his way into the company of baseball's immortals, a college man was a curiosity on any major league diamond. Today more than one hundred collegians, representing some eighty institutions, are connected with the sixteen clubs of the two major circuits. They come from all parts of the nation. There are two important reasons for this situation. One is the tendency of the larger colleges to employ former major leaguers as coaches, which results in the development of players who know something of professional baseball. The other is the extension of the scouting system by the major leagues, enabling them to find their material in the ranks of the amateurs rather than in the teams of the minor leagues. There has been criticism of this recruiting from the colleges on the ground that college baseball is too slavishly following the practices and methods of the professional. From the standpoint of the spectator, however, it has its merit in the improved standard of individual and team play.

319 Illinois playing field, from a photograph by B. A. Strauch, courtesy of the University of Illinois News Service

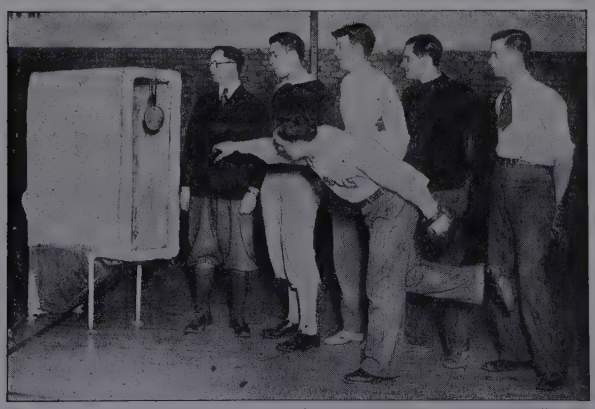
SPECTATOR OR PARTICIPANT

The greatest contribution of college baseball in the last twenty years is not evident in the players prepared for the major leagues, but in the hundreds of students transformed from spectators into participants in the sport. Witnessing a skillfully played game may provide several hours of relaxation, or offer a valuable method of temporary escape from the responsibilities of everyday life, but such vicarious exercise in the grandstands and the bleachers hardens no muscles and reduces no waistlines. Organized baseball emphasizes the number of spectators; college baseball after 1910 began to stress the number of participants. Instead of one diamond, there were several playing fields. The varsity team was at the apex of a score of teams. In 1915, for example, the University of Illinois reported an inter-class league of twenty baseball teams in addition to a fraternity league. Thirty acres was devoted to playing fields. A similar story came from schools in other parts of the country. Dartmouth and Princeton were proud of the hundreds of undergraduates actually playing the game on the campus, while the University of Missouri regarded baseball as the most important element in its program of intra-mural athletics. Those who charged that organized baseball was a business rather than a sport hailed the amateur game on the college campus as indispensable in the physical training of youth.

320 University of Illinois baseball team, 1928, from a photograph. © H. F. Duncan, courtesy of the University of Illinois News Service

THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

With the development of the public high school and its expansion into the West and South baseball became an important factor in secondary school athletics. For several generations the game had been played on vacant lot and school ground under a weird variety of rules, but after 1880 came the new era of the school team and the growth of interscholastic contests. Since the initiative was generally supplied by the student body, control and supervision of the sport was normally in the hands of interested students rather than of faculty representatives. Not until problems of finance, eligibility and interscholastic relations became too intricate for student management, did the school authorities intervene and attempt to set uniform standards for the sport. By the opening of the new century there were high school associations and conferences supervising a spirited competition in all parts of the nation. In the southern states, where weather conditions were more favorable during the playing season, the scholastic leagues were notably successful,



321 Indoor Pitching Practice by members of the Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, Base Ball Team, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

322 Industrial Baseball League Contest, Hartford, Conn., from a photograph, courtesy of the Playground and Recreation Association of America

THE GROWTH OF AMATEUR TEAMS

Since the World War there has been a notable increase in the number and activity of amateur teams. This is in part traceable to the use of the game as a builder of morale both in the cantonments and among the civilian population. Under the guidance of the War Camp Community Service baseball became the relaxation for thousands of workers, toiling long hours under great strain, in the munition plants and other essential industries of the nation. Diamonds were laid out, teams organized and schedules arranged in order that a maximum number might participate. Industrial centers such as Bethlehem, Pennsylvania; Wilmington, Delaware; Youngstown, Ohio; and Newark, New Jersey, witnessed a remarkable expansion of the amateur game, which continued after 1918. The influence permeated the smaller cities and effected the revival of city leagues which had been forgotten and the rehabilitation of ball parks which had been neglected. Indeed, it was in the villages and the smaller cities that the amateur spirit found its most complete expression. The following editorial from the *Daily Advertiser* of Tiffin, Ohio, under date of May 20, 1928, is typical: "This city has no representative professional baseball team, but it has something much better. It has a number of excellent amateur teams which provide sport for all of the people who enjoy the game. And we submit that this is a much more healthful condition of athletics than we would have were we supporting some high salaried team. Professional baseball may be all right in the larger cities where it can assume the proportions of a business, but for the smaller places the local leagues, composed of players who know or at least know of every other player, are the more practical, the more beneficial, and the more enjoyable for the whole community."

FROM THE SAND LOT TO THE PLAYGROUND

The sand lot diamond, with its bases marked by sticks, stones and old tin cans and its outfield lost in the weeds, is little more than a memory of the past. The annals of baseball are filled with the fame of those who learned the game on such a field, but the potential stars of the future will practice in a less natural environment. In place of the vacant lot has come the efficiently managed playground and the well-kept park. If some of the charm of the old days has been lost, compensation must be sought in the improved standard which the newer diamonds make possible. The Playground and Recreation Association of America reported that in 1927 more than fourteen thousand six hundred and seventy teams representing two hundred and nineteen thousand one hundred and ninety-nine players were enrolled under its jurisdiction. The sport of these youthful enthusiasts is baseball's greatest contribution to the nation and its highest promise for the future.

323 Boys' ball game, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

CHAPTER VI

SPORTS FOR THE MASSES

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, sagely viewing American society as represented by the Back Bay section of Boston in 1858, sounded a note of warning in the *Atlantic Monthly*. "I am satisfied," he wrote, "that such a set of black-coated, stiff-jointed, soft-muscled, paste-complexioned youth as we can boast in our Atlantic cities never before sprang from loins of Anglo-Saxon lineage. . . . We have a few good boatmen, no good horsemen that I hear of, nothing remarkable, I believe, in cricketing, and as for any great athletic feat performed by a gentleman in these latitudes, society would drop a man who should run around the Common in five minutes." A few years earlier the English angler and nimrod, Frank Forester, had lamented the difficulty he experienced in persuading merchants, bankers and lawyers to seek recreation in the sports of field and stream. In similar vein Edward Everett, who was not unfamiliar with collegiate circles, deplored the failure of his countrymen to give attention to "manly outdoor exercises which strengthen the mind by strengthening the body."

These criticisms of American indifference toward athletics were probably justified, but the critics did not foresee the transformation already in its initial stages. The change was most noticeable in urban areas which had felt the unsettling influence of industrialism. Beyond the Mississippi successive groups of frontiersmen, trappers and traders, prospectors and miners, cattlemen and shepherds, lumbermen and farmers, were working with feverish haste at their task of converting a "wild west" of buffalo herds and warlike Indians into a tranquil domain of ranches and railroads, of wheat fields and fruit farms. In the Middle West also man's work was still performed in a setting of forest and field. But it was otherwise in those centers where machine industry had begun to determine the structure of the social organism. Urban workers in the East needed a substitute for that life in the open which had been so great a boon to earlier generations of Americans. Unable to seek their recreation far afield, they could not join the army of pleasure seekers in fashionable resorts. The charm and restfulness of a country home was denied to them. Instead they found relief from the nervous tension of a hurried life in outdoor games and sports. Unlike earlier generations of Americans, they did not associate their play with their work, but they carried into it that genius for systematic organization which was becoming an outstanding characteristic of our expanding industries. Local clubs were formed and federated with national associations. Rules committees developed into governing bodies clothed with sweeping control of principles and methods. It was indeed the heyday of organized sport.

Notable in this development were a number of inexpensive diversions which swept the country with an almost universal appeal. Croquet, lawn tennis, bicycling and archery were divergent in character, but they possessed during the quarter century after 1860 a common attribute in the fact that they drew into the ranks of participants boys and girls as well as men and women. None of these was a sport which attracted large crowds of spectators. Each encouraged individual as well as group participation. And most significant of all, these popular recreations served as the medium through which women entered into the sport life of the nation, and thereby took a long step forward in their struggle for equality with men.

A VICTORIAN PASTIME

324 Preparing for croquet, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 22, 1871

Shortly after 1830 a physician named Guyard, living at Pau in southern France, concluded that the invalids under his care needed out-of-door recreation. Using certain features of an early game of balls and mallets, *paille-maille*, which had been played by the natives of Languedoc in the Middle Ages, he devised a mild form of competitive exercise which was called croquet. English visitors to French watering places found it a diverting amusement and introduced it into England as a fashionable game for country homes and garden parties. Thence it was brought to the United States, heralded as the approved pastime of Victorian society. With credentials of such merit croquet swept the country like an epidemic. Scythe and sickle prepared lawns and vacant lots for expensive English sets of balls and mallets, and no new home was complete unless a smooth expanse of grass was set apart for the croquet ground. In the midst of the heated controversy over reconstruction the *Nation* paused in the summer of 1866 to give its readers a lengthy account of the rules governing this "most infectious" amusement.

INTERESTING THE LADIES

In the towns and smaller cities from the Atlantic to the Mississippi croquet enticed all ages into the open air. It began the process, later accelerated by archery, tennis, and bicycling, of bringing the women out of stuffy living rooms and parlors to participate in out-of-door exercise with men. As a "courting game" croquet has had few superiors. Young women readily abandoned their crocheting and china-painting to share the new lawn game with the young men of the neighborhood. It afforded, within the bounds of the prim proprieties of the period, just enough opportunity for innocent flirtation to add zest to the pastime. Between plays there was time for whispered asides, and acquaintance ripened quickly as partners strove to attain the common goal. As the balls clicked, joyous laughter over blunders and accidents was mingled with amiable arguments concerning rules and styles of play. On many a shady lawn, where iron statuary bespoke the financial status of the household, croquet offered to bright-eyed girls and demure young women a mild transition between the restrictions that had hemmed in their mothers and the greater freedom which their daughters were destined to enjoy. In both the country and the city, wire wickets on lawns became a sign of conformity with the latest dictates of fashion.

325 The game of croquet, from a drawing by Bush in *Harper's Weekly*, September 8, 1866

326 From a lithograph in *Godey's Lady's Book*, April 1866

THE GAME OF CROQUET

As introduced to Americans in the 'sixties of the last century, lawn croquet was, and still is, a social amusement rather than a test of skill. Played on lumpy lawns with uneven wooden balls and cheap wooden mallets, the game was too often determined by chance rather than that nicety of play which delights the expert. Because the equipment was simple and easily set up any vacant space was pressed into service. Manufacturers catered to the growing demand by turning out sets at moderate prices with materials and workmanship proportionately cheap. With each set came a list of rules and instructions, varying according to the ideas of the different firms which sponsored them. To those who took their croquet seriously the resulting confusion was so distressing that they called for a national convention of players to settle at least the most important points.

327 From a print in the possession of the publishers

THE NATIONAL CROQUET ASSOCIATION

The conference of experts which assembled in 1879 carefully distinguished between "scientific croquet" and the ordinary variety which flourished on the lawns of the country. In the latter it was little interested; the former seemed worthy of recognition. Three years later the National Croquet Association was formed to coördinate the efforts of players and clubs interested in developing croquet as a test of skill. When the first national tournament was held at Norwich, Connecticut, in 1882, it became evident that the revised American game was far different from the English importation of twenty years earlier. A rectangular court, carefully leveled and sanded, with a boundary board at the edge of the field of play had taken the place of the natural lawn. Balls of hard rubber and short-handled mallets with rubber-tipped heads had superseded the wooden balls and conveniently long-handled mallets. The wide arches suitable to the grassy lawn had been narrowed so that the balls could barely be driven through. With such equipment on the sanded courts the game had become one requiring accurate shots and skillful manipulation of the balls. As played by the experts it was sufficiently interesting to draw a small gallery to watch the more important matches. For a number of years after 1882 the national tournaments at Norwich were well attended by contestants. Rivalry between sectional organizations or prominent clubs stimulated interest. Late in the century the rules were carefully revised and the name of the central body was changed to the National Roque Association.

328 The national croquet tournament at Norwich, from a drawing by Thure de Thulstrup in *Harper's Weekly*, August 28, 1886

ROQUE — THE SUBURBAN GAME

329 Annual Roque Match for the Eastern Championship of the American Roque League, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

UNDER the name of roque, which is literally the heart of croquet, the scientific game sponsored by the national association won adherents in many suburban communities of the country. Its appeal was particularly to those of middle age, who found lawn tennis too strenuous and had not learned the possibilities of golf. For them it admirably combined moderate exercise with the delicate skill of billiards and the strategy of tennis. A score of clubs in New England and the suburban communities near Philadelphia, Washington, and New York, sent delegates annually to the national tournament at Norwich, where competition was always keen and the small gallery of spectators enjoyed play of a high order. But the spontaneous *cameraderie* of the lawn game was gone. With all its scientific accuracy roque could not supply what croquet had once meant to the men and women of the nation.

330 Major Walter C. Wingfield, from an engraving after a photograph, in *The Illustrated Sporting and Dramatic News*, London, July 31, 1875

"SPHAIRISTIKE"

IN the summer of 1873 the guests at an English house party near London were entertained by Major Walter C. Wingfield, of the British Army, who taught them a new lawn game which he considered superior to croquet. "Sphairistike," as he called it, was his own ingenious modification of batting a ball over an obstacle. It was quite evident that he had borrowed from the eighteenth-century game of field tennis which in its French form of *la longue paume* dated back to the Middle Ages. Like Abner C. Doubleday in baseball, Major Wingfield was an adapter rather than an inventor. His "sphairistike" possessed merit. It was played by two contestants on a level stretch of grass shaped like an hour-glass, sixty feet long and thirty feet wide at the base lines, with side lines converging to twenty-one feet at the net, which was seven feet high at the ends sagging to four feet eight inches in the middle. The server stood in a box at the center of the court. Such was the game which the Marylebone Cricket Club christened "lawn tennis" in March, 1875, and to which the lawns of the All-England Croquet Club at Wimbledon were opened in the summer of the same year.

EARLY CONTESTS

AMERICAN tourists in England during the summer of 1874 became acquainted with the game which Major Wingfield had just patented. Some of them brought back the necessary paraphernalia of racquets, nets, and balls, and "sphairistike" was played at Nahant, Massachusetts, and at the Newport Casino. After the game received the blessing of the Marylebone Club, it was quickly recognized by cricket clubs in the United States, notably the Staten Island Cricket Club and the Young America Cricket Club of Philadelphia. There were tournaments also at Boston, where Dr. James Dwight and Richard D. Sears quickly established local reputations. That their fame was merited was demonstrated in 1878 when they easily defeated the best New York and Philadelphia players in some of the earliest doubles matches ever played in this country.

331 From a drawing by Charles S. Reinhart in *Harper's Weekly*, September 14, 1878

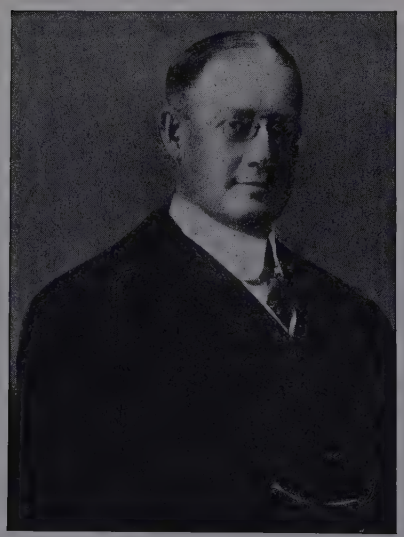
332 First national lawn tennis tournament, from a drawing by H. A. Ogden, in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, September 18, 1880

THE NATIONAL LAWN TENNIS ASSOCIATION

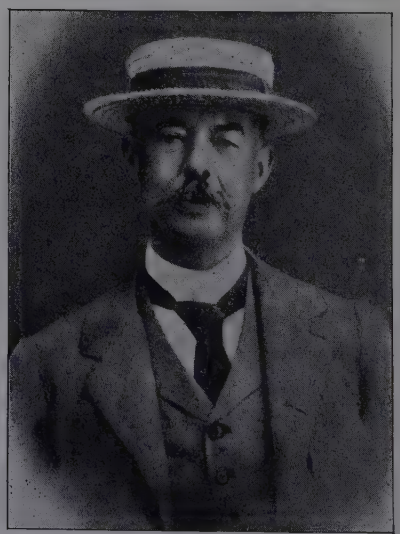
DESPITE their victories, the Bostonians were disappointed in their tour. They found that tennis, like croquet, was regarded as a pleasant pastime for a summer afternoon, to be played without too much attention to rules and regulations. The few who satisfied their curiosity by attending the matches refused to take the sport seriously. The players themselves cared little about such details as the size of the court, the height of the net, or the weight of the balls. The game was played spontaneously, and, in the opinion of Sears and Dwight, with a minimum of skill. But the desire for uniformity and standardization, so typical of the industrial age, was not long denied. In 1881 the United States National Lawn Tennis Association was formed, which began the task of formulating the rules, and organized the first national tournament at Newport. On the lawn before the Casino a single row of chairs accommodated the fashionably dressed society leaders who surrounded the court on which Richard D. Sears with smashing volleys won the singles championship. The following season a slightly larger group, in which the masculine contingent was still small, watched the champion repeat his victory, and, with Dr. James Dwight, win the doubles. A few of the more observant noticed that the size of the court and the height of the net had been changed. Upon inquiry they learned that the net height had been set at three feet, six inches on the ends and three feet in the center while the court dimensions had been fixed at a length of seventy-eight feet and a width of thirty-six feet for singles and forty-five feet for doubles.

AN INVINCIBLE PAIR

FOR a dozen years after Dr. Dwight taught his friend Sears the principles of the English game of tennis, the two Bostonians had no equals in the rapidly increasing ranks of American players. They were not satisfied with merely defeating their countrymen; excellence of form was their goal. They journeyed to England and southern France that they might benefit from practice matches with the British experts, Lawford and Renshaw. From the latter Sears learned the brilliant volleying which characterized his dashing style of play. Though he always played a well-balanced game, the steadying influence of Dwight enabled him to reveal his soundest tennis in the doubles. For seven years he was the undefeated singles champion until he retired in 1887, and during five of those years he and Dwight won the doubles title. Aside from their excellent example on the courts the two champions were tireless in their efforts to persuade their fellow-countrymen of the thrill which tennis afforded.



333 Richard H. Sears, from a photograph, courtesy of the United States Lawn Tennis Association



334 Dr. James Dwight, 1852–1917, from a photograph, courtesy of the United States Lawn Tennis Association

EASTERN TOURNAMENTS

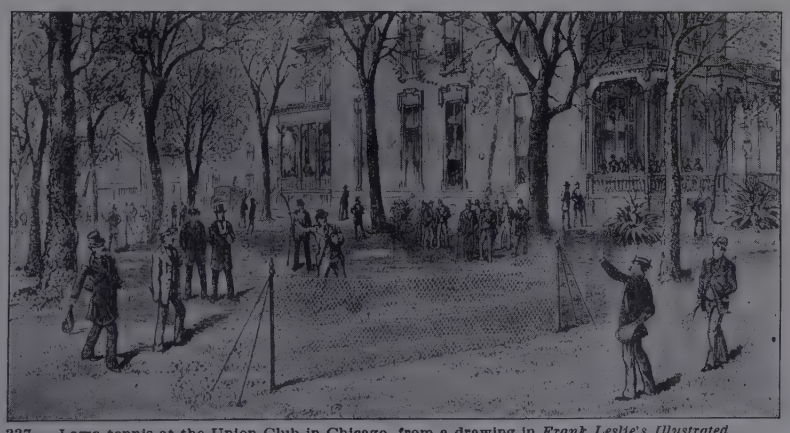
335 Middle States Championship Matches at Orange Lawn Tennis Club, from a drawing by W. P. Snyder in *Harper's Weekly*, July 10, 1886

When the supremacy of Sears ended in 1887, it was quite evident that tennis was firmly established both as a sport for skilled experts and as a popular recreation. Throughout the eastern states clubs, affiliated with the national organization, provided courts where novices still batted the ball back and forth in haphazard fashion and expert players prepared for important matches. Newport was not the only place where spectators were beginning to enjoy the staccato rhythm of the swift service and return. The Philadelphia cricket clubs maintained excellent courts and a high standard of play. On Staten Island the cooling breezes of upper New York Bay blew across the tennis grounds of the Staten Island Cricket and Baseball Club, where visiting players from Philadelphia and Boston tested the ability of local champions before a small but appreciative gallery. Quite as correct as Newport in its appointments was the Orange Lawn Tennis Club at Mountain Station, New Jersey. To its courts came the best players of the country to compete in the Middle States championship tournament, an event which lined the grounds with victorias, landaus, and elegant carts, their occupants in formal dress befitting a state occasion. Tennis had received society's sanction.

336 Sears-Pettit Match at Newport for the National Championship, August 22, 1885, from a drawing after a photograph in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, September 5, 1885

A WESTERN CLUB

During the early years courts were less numerous in the western states than in the vicinity of eastern cities. When the members of the Union Club in Chicago stretched the first net on their grounds in 1879, they were not aware of the exact nature of tennis, for their efforts were solely directed toward keeping the ball in the air. This version of battledore and shuttlecock could not have been very strenuous, since few of the luxuriantly bearded participants found it necessary to doff their silk hats. Within eight years, however, Chicago was entertaining the leading western players in the first sectional matches, which resulted in the victory of C. A. Chase. For eight years he held the title of western champion, though he never carried the colors of his section to victory in the national tournaments.



337 Lawn tennis at the Union Club in Chicago, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, May 24, 1879

338 Ladies' lawn tennis tournament, Staten Island Cricket Club, from a drawing by Charles Dater Weldon in *Harper's Weekly*, October 13, 1883

THE FIRST WOMEN CHAMPIONS

During the embryonic years in the development of tennis many believed that it would always remain a game primarily interesting to women. While Dr. James Dwight was teaching his friends at Nahant, members of the Ladies' Club, associated with the Staten Island Cricket and Baseball Club, hurried over the lawns in pursuit of misdirected balls. Doubles matches became particularly popular. So much interest was aroused among the men that they began to share the courts and modify the style of women's play. After 1881 women's tournaments were conducted along the lines suggested by the national committee on rules, but the national championship for women was not established until 1887, when Ellen F. Hensell won the title. As most women players were more interested in doubles matches than in singles, the victory of the Roosevelt sisters in the first title contests of 1890 marked the real beginning of feminine competition for national recognition. During the next two years the appearance on American courts of Mabel E. Cahill, the Irish player, did much to improve the standard of the championship matches. Her accuracy and speed in the first mixed doubles contests was a revelation to those who considered tennis too strenuous a game for women.

CHANGING STYLES IN CHAMPIONS

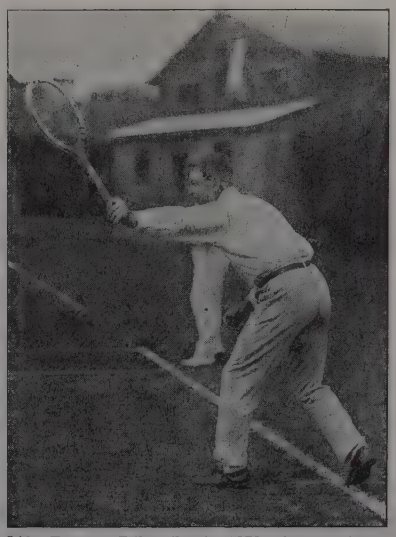
One of the noticeable characteristics of the early champions was their tendency to play a net game. Sears relied almost entirely on his smashing volleys; Henry W. Slocum, his successor, believed that a strong offense was the best defense; while Oliver S. Campbell, who was by no means helpless in the back court and on the base line, took many chances in order to get to the net for a "killing" shot. With the advent of Robert D. Wrenn, who beat Campbell at his own game in 1893, came several notable variations in play. Wrenn demonstrated the wisdom of combining the net game of Sears and Campbell with the fast back court drives of the Englishman, Lawford. He perfected the pass, the lob, and the low easy shot falling short of the service line, which he used successfully to force the net player back. With M. G. Chace he introduced high and constant lobbing, a device carried to extremes by later champions. In his combination of a diversified attack with an ingenious defense, Wrenn was a successful pioneer.

339 The Campbell-Slocum Match for the Championship, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, September 20, 1890

340 Holcombe Ward, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

COLLEGE STARS

From the college campus came many of the high ranking competitors in the championship matches. In 1888 Oliver S. Campbell and V. G. Hall of Columbia won both the intercollegiate and national doubles titles. For eight years after 1893 the singles championship was held by men who had demonstrated their ability on the courts at Harvard: Robert D. Wrenn, F. H. Hovey, and Malcolm D. Whitman. Then the Harvard dynasty was broken in 1901 by William A. Larned of Cornell. Although the doubles teams were generally formed in a haphazard fashion with little thought of team play, occasionally a fine pair have come from college circles after years of practice together to sweep all before them in the national championships. Such a combination was that of Holcombe Ward and Dwight F. Davis of Harvard. They brought into the game the twist service, which forced the receiver back from the net and aided the server in the struggle for the net position. With a smashing attack at the net they combined an extreme lobbing defense when driven away from their favorite forward positions. Davis flashed across the court to score brilliantly, while Ward, deliberate but always accurate, supplied the steadying influence so necessary for continued success.



341 Dwight Filley Davis, 1879–, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

THE DAVIS CUP

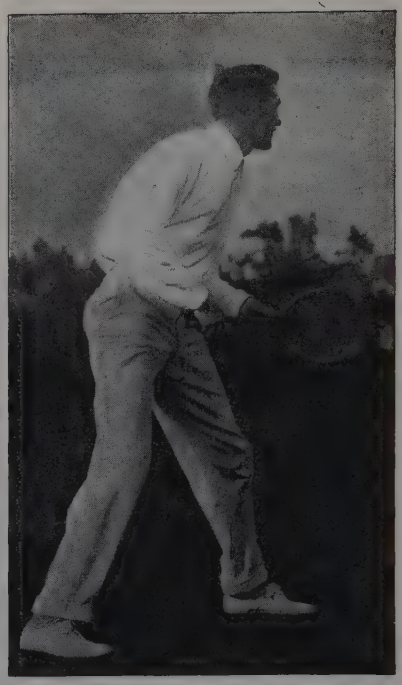
Prior to 1900 there had been little opportunity for American players to match skill with the best performers on the British courts. The results of a few singles and doubles contests both in England and in this country seemed to indicate that the standard of play in the United States was considerably inferior. To provide a more satisfactory test the National Lawn Tennis Association in 1897 challenged the British Association to a team match, offering to pay the expenses of the visitors if England would defray the American expenses for a return contest the following year. Financial difficulties prevented the acceptance of the challenge, but three English players, H. S. Mahoney, Dr. W. Y. Eaves and H. A. Nisbet, came over to participate in the first international team match. On the grounds of the St. George Cricket Club at Hoboken the American team, composed of Robert D. Wrenn, William A. Larned and George L. Wrenn won by five sets to four. The visit of this English team stimulated an interest in international matches, which Dwight F. Davis, then doubles champion with H. F. Ward and later Secretary of War in President Coolidge's cabinet, tried to make permanent by the offer in 1900 of an appropriate silver trophy. After negotiations in which Dr. James Dwight displayed ability as a diplomat, the lawn tennis associations of England and the United States accepted the conditions governing competition for the Davis Challenge Cup.

342 The Davis Cup, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

343 Reginald Frank Doherty, 1872–1910, from a photograph by Alman & Co., New York

THE FIRST CUP MATCH

The British promptly challenged in 1900, sending a team of three ranking players, A. W. Gore, E. D. Black, and H. R. Barrett. On the grounds of the Longwood Cricket Club near Boston they met their conquerors. In the singles Dwight F. Davis and Malcom D. Whitman, then in his third year as champion, won with comparative ease, while Davis and Ward surpassed their usually effective game, taking the doubles in straight sets. To the surprise of the gallery the challengers won only one set of the eleven played before rain terminated the contest. Two years later a superior team of British players failed to equal the performance of the great American quartette, Larned, Whitman, Ward, and Davis, but in 1903 the Dohertys, probably the most accomplished pair of doubles players in the history of tennis, came for the trophy and took it home with them.



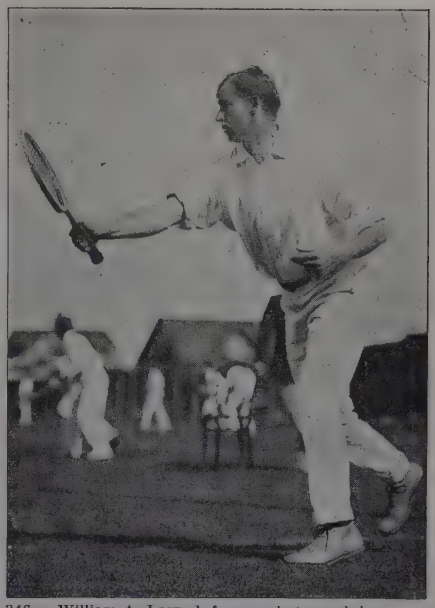
344 Malcolm D. Whitman, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

AN IMPROVED GAME INCREASES IN POPULARITY

Many who watched with satisfaction the victory of the American team in the first Davis Cup matches could remember well the early tournaments in front of the Casino at Newport. In twenty years there had been a remarkable change. It was revealed in the attitude of the spectators as well as in the play on the courts. The throng that assembled at Longwood was less interested in the deportment and attire of prominent social leaders than in the service and strokes of the contestants. It discussed volleying and lobbing intelligently, argued the merits of net and back-court play, and applauded the accuracy of shots spotted on the lines. The knowledge and interest manifested by the gallery arose not only from watching the well-nigh perfect play of carefully trained athletes but also from the experience of actual participation in less spectacular matches. Drawn from all parts of the country, these spectators were representative of the widespread popularity of tennis. They were but a small percentage of the thousands who were stretching nets across close-clipped lawns, joining neighborhood clubs to improve their game, or practicing on public courts in the hope of developing a skill comparable to that of a Whitman or a Larned. The tennis ranks were recruited from all ages and both sexes. The courts knew the awkward stroke of boys and girls as often as the smashing drives and accurate volleys of high-ranking players. Tennis had become a sport for the masses.

345 Patterson-Hunter Match at the Germantown Cricket Club, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

WILLIAM A. LARNED

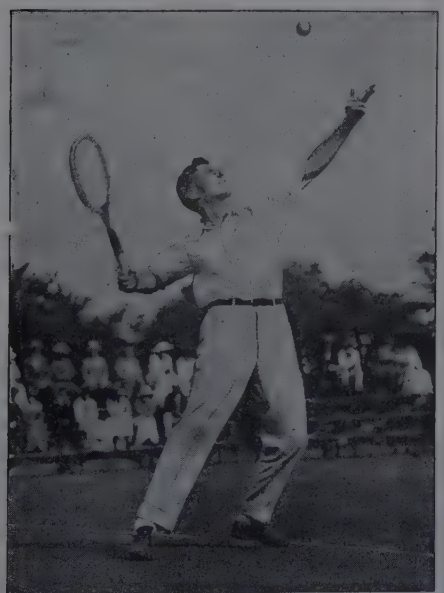


346 William A. Larned, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

While the Dohertys were in the United States winning the Davis Cup matches in 1903, they also qualified to participate in the national tournament for the singles and doubles titles, both of which they added to their previous laurels. In the singles H. L. Doherty was pitted in the final match against William A. Larned, who for two years had been national champion. Larned's defeat marked the close of the first period of his career, but in 1907 he returned to his earlier form and won the championship for five successive years. Though he was never a spectacular player, his matches with Beals C. Wright and W. J. Clothier were masterpieces of tennis art. With an unerring sense of direction, which enabled him to place the ball where he willed, he combined an uncanny ability to judge the nature of his opponent's return. Few aces resulted from his service, but when the ball came back he seldom failed to handle it. Equally adept at pickups close to the net or overhead smashes, he could vary pace in his forehand and backhand strokes without the slighest apparent deviation in the motion of his racket. So accurate were his unhurried strokes that his admirers insisted he would have carried off premier honors for many more years had not rheumatism conquered him.

MAURICE E. McLOUGHLIN

During the ascendancy of Larned there came from the Pacific Coast a young man whose swift dashes across the court were marked by the flash of red hair in the sun. Maurice E. McLoughlin amazed the East with the speed of his drives to the far corners and the force of his service. In 1912 his spinning returns and forehand strokes were working well and he won the national singles title for the first time. During the same year he and Thomas C. Bundy won the doubles championship, which they held for three years. With McLoughlin at the peak of his form the following year the American team in the Davis Cup competition won its first victory since England took the trophy in 1903. The matches were signalized by the finished play of R. Norris Williams of Harvard and the brilliant work at the net of H. H. Hackett, the veteran of many a championship match, but in comparison with the performance of his colleagues McLoughlin's game appeared even greater. For several years he dominated the courts to the joy of his friends on the Pacific Coast.



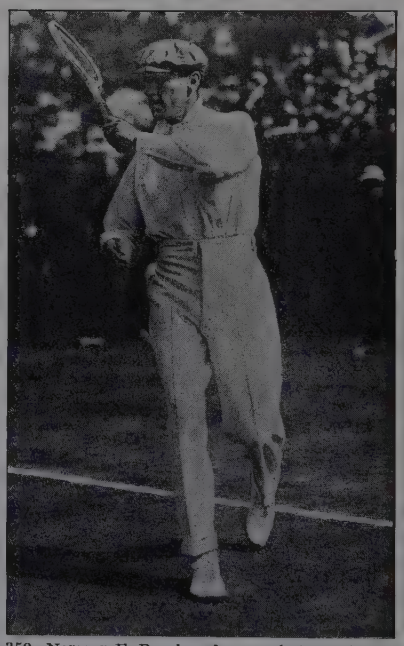
347 Maurice E. McLoughlin, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

348 R. Norris Williams, United States Tennis Champion in 1914 and 1916, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

349 McLoughlin and Brookes in a thirty-two game set at the West Side Lawn Tennis Club, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE CUP MATCHES OF 1914

The West Side Lawn Tennis Club could not accommodate the crowd which sought its courts in 1914 to witness the final matches in the attempt of Australia to wrest the Cup from its American holders. All were eager to see the inscrutable Brookes meet the furious attack of McLoughlin and to determine whether the finished play of Williams was superior to that of the versatile Wilding. Several years absence of the Australians from the courts had only served to whet the appetite of those who remembered their earlier form. McLoughlin proved more than a match for the challengers, winning his matches with both Brookes and Wilding, though the former forced him to play thirty-two games in order to win the second set of the match. That ended the American victories, for McLoughlin and Bundy failed to break through the perfect teamwork of the Australians in the doubles and Williams lost both his matches. To Australia went the trophy, there to remain during the war years while a greater international contest caused the suspension of competition.



350 Norman E. Brookes, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

ANOTHER CALIFORNIA CHAMPION

Before McLoughlin fell a victim to the terrific pace which he had set for himself, another champion from the Pacific Coast threw down his gauntlet in the national lists. William M. Johnston borrowed little from the style of his predecessor. Less speedy than the "California meteor" he was more deliberate and quite as powerful. From the first his genial disposition and pleasant smile won him a following of ardent admirers who gave him encouragement on many a hard-fought court. With Johnston came Clarence Griffin, a masterful net player, who knew well the secret of effective work in doubles matches. Together they won the doubles championship in 1915 and 1916, while Johnston took the singles championship from Williams the first year, only to have the tables turned in 1916. Several years of intensive practice followed their first sally into eastern competition, but in 1919 they returned for the title matches, repeating the victories of their former visits. It was evident that Johnston had corrected the weaknesses in his play so that there was no point at which his opponents could direct a successful attack. For the next six years he remained one of the outstanding American players, though the superior strength of Tilden wrested the championship from him. In the spirit of the true amateur he remained in the game even at the sacrifice of important business interests. There was genuine regret in 1928 when he announced that his days in the national title matches were ended.

351 William M. Johnston, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

WILLIAM T. TILDEN, II

352 William Tatem Tilden, II, 1893–, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

While Johnston and Williams were battling for the national title, a tall, muscular young man in Philadelphia was competing in local tournaments without attracting much attention. Those who appraised his play doubted whether he would ever pass beyond the ranks of the game's steady and reliable, but undistinguished, players. The young man was William T. Tilden, II. He surprised the critics in 1918 by winning the national clay-court title, an achievement which was followed by his victory in the national doubles with Vincent Richards as team-mate. A reversal of form the following year caused him to lose the indoor championship to Richards, but in 1920 he inaugurated a series of victories in the national singles which lasted six years until his defeat by the French champion, Lacoste. Tilden's greatest assets were strength and strategy. He had neither the finished form of R. Norris Williams nor the dashing attack of McLoughlin, but in his strokes were the force and accuracy of a rifle shot. Few were the opponents who coped with his "railroad" service. High over head, off the ground, forehand or backhand, were alike to him, his returns being spotted to profit by his opponent's weakness. Though Tilden was never so great a "hero" on the courts as McLoughlin and Johnston, all admired his superb strength, his ingenious strategy, and his fine courage.

353 Tilden and Richards playing Patterson and O'Hara Wood on the Longwood Courts, Massachusetts, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

A BRILLIANT PUPIL

In the autumn of 1926 amateur tennis lost one of its ablest representatives when Vincent Richards joined the ranks of the professionals. A decade earlier, trained under the tutelage of Tilden, he had won the national boys' championship, following that with the national indoor junior title in 1918. While he was still in the junior rank he won the doubles title with Tilden. In 1919 he defeated his former teacher for the national indoor championship. During the period of Tilden's ascendancy Richards was not far behind him, displaying much the same power and using many of the strokes which won trophies for the champion. On occasion his play was remarkably brilliant, but his admirers soon learned that he was erratic. This lack of consistency, which may be overcome, undoubtedly kept him from honors of which his best game was worthy.

TRANSITION

Early in the present century the style of play in women's tournaments began to conform more closely to the standards set by the men. For many years the leading women players had been content with a base-line game, never striving for a net position, indeed avoiding it whenever possible. Each successive champion sought to improve her forehand and backhand drives from the back court. Elizabeth H. Moore, who won her fourth title in 1905, was one of the last representatives of this unvaried game. In 1904 May Sutton created something of a sensation with the vigor of her net game and the speed of her overhead smashes. Her triumph marked the beginning of a transition which made the matches for women quite as interesting as those for men.

354 Elizabeth H. Moore, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

355 Mary K. Browne, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE CALIFORNIA INVASION

During the year that McLoughlin first flashed over the eastern courts, Hazel Hotchkiss came from California to demonstrate that women could develop the same energy and strokes as men. For three years after 1909 she held the championship in singles, doubles, and mixed doubles. Her retirement was only temporary, for she returned in 1915, as Mrs. George W. Wightman, to participate in many of the eastern tournaments. As national champion she was succeeded by another Californian, Mary K. Browne, who held the title as long as her health permitted her to compete. Without apparent exertion she covered every part of the court, playing with equal skill and assurance at net or base-line. No woman before her day had displayed the variety of shots which she had constantly at her service. Equally accurate were her deep volleys, ground strokes, pickups, and backhand drives to the far corners of the court. Like Miss Hotchkiss she retired for a time, but returned during the war, displaying the ability of a champion as late as 1925.

AT ST. MARTINS

For many years Philadelphia was the scene of the liveliest tennis competition among American women. The early championships were staged on the grounds at Wissahickon and later transferred to the courts of the Cricket Club, St. Martins. There May Sutton revealed her skill at the net, while Hazel Hotchkiss and Mary Browne earned hearty applause for their versatility. There, also, Molla Bjurstedt appeared in 1915, fresh from her victories in Norway, to begin a more phenomenal career on American courts. From the year of her first games in this country until 1924 she held the championship continuously, except for Mrs. Wightman's victory in 1919. Lacking the smoothness and accuracy which characterized Miss Browne's play, Miss Bjurstedt nevertheless possessed forehand and backhand strokes of such force and speed as to bring about the downfall of most of her opponents, though she failed to equal the amazing skill of her French rival, Suzanne Lenglen.

356 National Women's Tennis Tournament at the Cricket Club, St. Martins, Philadelphia, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

HELEN WILLS

357 Helen Wills, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

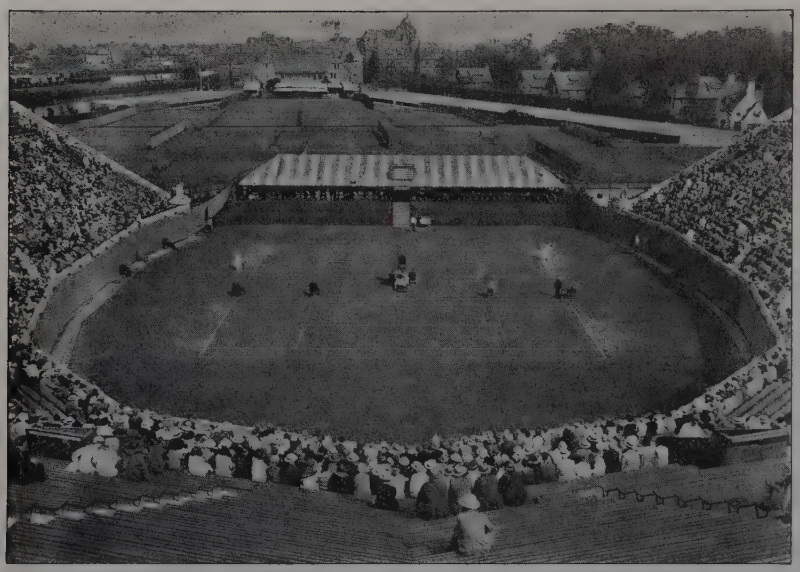
In 1922 a California schoolgirl set the whole tennis world talking of her faultless play. With high hope she came East, only to discover that her youthful energy was not quite a match for the skill of the experienced player. But the following year Helen Wills returned, this time to triumph. Against Molla Bjurstedt Mallory, long considered invincible, she won her first national championship. Since then she has added many laurels to her crown. In 1928 she made her most successful invasion of foreign courts, winning the French championship at Auteuil, the English title at Wimbledon, and the Wightman Cup matches in which she participated. Against the best women players of France, England, Spain, Germany and Holland, as well as of her own country, Miss Wills did not lose a single set. Long practice with high ranking male players has given her tremendous hitting strength, almost perfect technique, and marvelous speed. Probably no other woman has so nearly approximated the standard of play set by the championship matches for men. Within the brief space of her own lifetime has come the transition from women who played indifferent tennis in tight-waisted dresses of ankle length to this energetic girl in sleeveless tennis costume, who drives the ball into the farthest corners of the court with the accuracy of a Larned or a Johnston.

DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION

The revival of the Davis Cup competition following the World War coincided with a period of American supremacy upon the courts. In 1919 Australia held the trophy against the British challengers, but the following year Tilden and Johnston, both playing the greatest tennis of their careers, won the right to challenge Australia. Against G. L. Patterson and Norman E. Brookes, who was a veteran of many contests, the American team won every set. For the next six years the trophy was held against all comers, Tilden and Johnston bearing the brunt of its defense. Meanwhile interest in the matches had developed so that every nation of consequence in the tennis world sent its greatest players to participate in the elimination contests. In 1913 only eight nations had entered teams to determine which one should challenge the holder of the cup, but in 1927 twenty-five teams fought for the right to try to wrest the trophy from the United States. With twenty-one listed in the European zone it required seven rounds before France, led by Lacoste and Cochet, became the challenger. In the final matches youth triumphed over experience, and the French became custodians of the cup, the first time that it had been out of the hands of the English-speaking nations.

358 René Lacoste, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

359 Henri Cochet, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



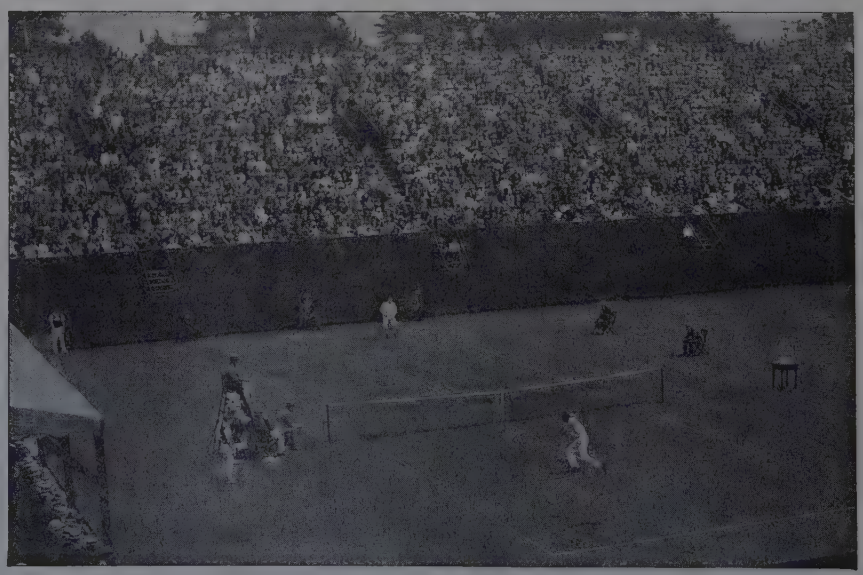
360 Helen Wills-Betty Nuthall Match at the West Side Tennis Club, Forest Hills, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

A MODERN STADIUM

In recent years the national championships have generally been played upon the courts of the West Side Tennis Club at Forest Hills, Long Island. From the new concrete stadium eight thousand spectators watched the thrilling battles of Tilden and Johnston for the title, or the masterful defense of these two experts against the attacks of foreign challengers. It was always a critical audience. There were few of its members who did not know the satisfaction of sharp volleys and base-line drives. By their own experience they carefully appraised the play of the champions. The game which they watched had been carried as near to technical perfection as the human equation permitted. On flawless courts, smooth and level as a billiard table, protected from the varying currents of wind, players spotted the ball with scientific accuracy where they willed. Yet the game was something more than an exact science. Technical perfection was evident in the ever-changing pattern of movements, now sharply angular, now swiftly graceful, but always purposeful, which has made the sport alluring to both spectator and participant.

TENNIS HOLDS ITS OWN

Tennis has never provided the pageantry which attracts crowds of spectators. The few thousands who witness the tournaments and national championships are but a small percentage of the millions who wield the racket on turf or clay courts. In 1921 the United States Lawn Tennis Association reported three hundred member-clubs, eleven member-associations, and thirteen affiliated organizations with more than one million amateurs enrolled in the ranks. This did not include other thousands ranging from boys and girls to middle-aged men and women, who find the thrill of matching strategy and skill on municipal courts or privately-owned grounds. Golf has made inroads among the men and women over thirty in the tennis clientele, but those who do not find it too strenuous exercise have enabled the sport to hold its own with other outdoor recreations. For many there can be no substitute for the satisfaction of mastering an effective service, correcting a defective backhand, or attaining speed and accuracy in overhead strokes. On outdoor and indoor courts their quest for skill in competition is enlivened by the stimulating clash of wits which dominates the swift action of their play.



361 The Tilden-Cochet Match at Germantown, Pa., 1927, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THREE MERRY BOWMEN

"All by the shady green-wood tree
The merry, merry archers roam;
Jovial and bold and ever free,
They tread their woodland home."

A FEW years before Major Wingfield's game of sphairistike was introduced into this country two young ex-Confederates selected Crawfordsville, Indiana, as their future home. They were slight but muscular men, tall and erect with the light step of the woodsman. True woodsmen they were. Following the failure of the war for southern independence, having seen service with Lee, they had sought health and pleasure in tramping the wild lands of Florida. Denied the use of firearms, they fashioned crude bows and arrows and learned in southern forests the joys of the roving archer. To their new home in Indiana Maurice and William Thompson brought a knowledge of woodcraft and a love of the ancient art of archery. In Crawfordsville they found a kindred spirit in Captain H. H. Talbot, with whom they roamed the valley of the Wabash as though it were some modern Sherwood Forest and they the descendants of Robin Hood's Greenwood men. Many a hare and woodchuck fell a victim to the arrows which whistled from their well-strung bows. These "three merry bowmen" transmitted to their friends their own enthusiasm for the sport of the archer.

WABASH MERRY BOWMEN.—*Crawfordsville, Ind., Dec. 23d.*—The club held its first meeting for winter practice. The ground being hard frozen, and a cold wind blowing from the north, the archers were unable to do any good scoring. The following best scores were made at the York Round :—

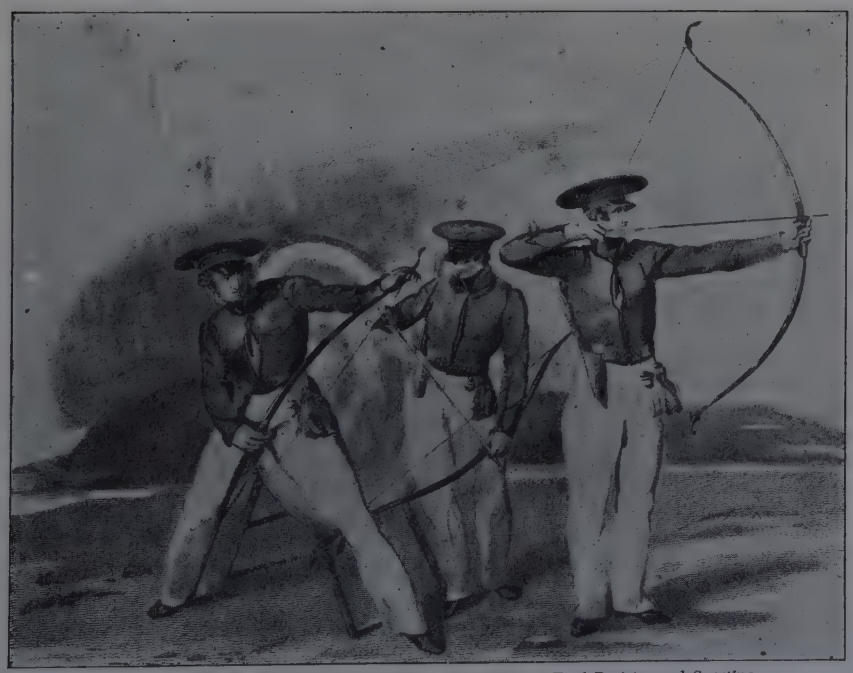
	100 *Yards.*	80 *Yards.*	60 *Yards.*	*Total.*
Will H. Thompson	26—106	25—103	24—122	75—331
Maurice Thompson	23— 91	29—127	22— 98	74—316
John A. Booe	13— 43	20— 84	18— 66	51—193
Theo. McMechan	11— 47	24— 96	16— 48	51—191

During the winter, when the weather will permit, this Society will hold occasional meetings for out-door practice, they being unable to get a hall of sufficient length for in-door practice. There will be no regular appointed meetings for practice,-but only when the elements are willing. The ladies will have no practice until spring.

362 Archery at Crawfordsville, Indiana, from *Forest and Stream*, January 1, 1880

TITIAN RAMSAY PEALE, 1800–1885

IN this country two influences have been blended in the revival of archery. One was the inspiring tradition of the long bowmen at Crécy and Agincourt and the fascinating legend of Robin Hood; the other, most potent in the case of American youth, was the example of the American Indian. As both sources were drawn upon by Maurice Thompson and his associates, so had they been used a generation earlier to perpetuate the organization known as the United Bowmen of Philadelphia. This was probably the earliest society of archers in this country. It owed its existence to Titian Ramsay Peale, distinguished member of the famous family of American artists. At the age of nineteen Peale, desirous of making drawings of wild life, had accompanied Major Long's expedition into the Louisiana Purchase territory. There he became interested in the habits and folklore of the plains Indians, spending as much time in mastering the use of the bow and arrow as in sketching the animal types of the region. Upon his return he initiated a few of his close friends into the mysteries of archery. What he had learned from the Indians was supplemented by careful reading of Roger Ascham's sixteenth-century volume, *Toxophilus, or the Schole of Shooting*, with its quaint descriptions of the instruments and methods of the archers of old England.



363 Philadelphia Archers, from an engraving in *The American Turf Register and Sporting Magazine*, May 1830

364 Trophies of the United Bowmen of Philadelphia, from a photograph by Wallace of the originals in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania

THE UNITED BOWMEN OF PHILADELPHIA

The fruition of Peale's interest in establishing archery as a sport for gentlemen was the formation of the United Bowmen of Philadelphia in 1828. With its membership limited to twenty-five it remained a select club which apparently encouraged few imitators. For thirty years, however, it conducted practice matches and tournaments for silver trophies, some of which are now in the custody of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. In 1859 the brief entry on the club's records, "No grounds, no shooting" marked the end of gay targets and zealous marksmen for more than a decade.

THE REVIVAL OF ARCHERY

Maurice Thompson was not aware of the history of the Philadelphia bowmen when he undertook to convince his countrymen of the merits of the bow and arrow. His poetic sketches in periodicals and his lyric volume, *The Witchery of Archery*, reveal the source of his inspiration. Steeped in the English traditions of the sport, which had survived archery's downfall as a military weapon, he was also well acquainted with the practice of the American Indian in the use of the bow. Personally, he preferred the rôle of a roving archer in the woodland, but he speedily perceived that the game of target shooting on the lawn was more appealing to the majority. By 1879 more than twenty-five clubs had set up butts and multicolored targets from New York to Illinois, and nine of them were not ashamed to publish their tournament scores in comparison with the records of the British associations.

365 From the original advertisement in *Forest and Stream*, April 10, 1879

THE FIRST NATIONAL TOURNAMENT

The initial tournament held in 1879 at White Stocking Park, Chicago, under the auspices of the National Archery Association was endorsed in the columns of *Harper's Weekly* for September 13: "A large number of ladies and gentlemen of high social position met for the purpose of inaugurating an annual contest in archery on the basis of those so long popular in England. . . . The contestants were ladies and gentlemen from the cultured circles of society and while the rivalry among the shooters was keen to the last degree, an air of such refinement and courteous dignity as is not often witnessed by observers of public games characterized every one connected with the contest. . . . Mrs. Spalding Brown of Hastings, Michigan, won the ladies' medal, exhibiting a high degree of quiet nerve and presence of mind. Mr. Will H. Thompson won the gentleman's medal with a double York Round of 624 points — a third more than any other contestant, though during the first two days he was actually so sick from bilious fever as scarcely to be able to keep his feet." The distances were the same as those prescribed by the English National Association, but the team contests between four archers from each club used the "American Round" of thirty arrows to each man at forty, fifty and sixty yards.

366 Will H. Thompson, 1852–, from a drawing after a photograph, in *Harper's Weekly*, September 13, 1879

THE WOMAN ARCHER

367 Afternoon Exercises of Members of the Ladies' Club for Outdoor Sports, Camp Washington, Staten Island, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, September 8, 1877

Like tennis, archery opened another avenue which led women into out-of-door sports. Frequently they competed in target practice on terms of complete equality with men, for the size and weight of the bow could be perfectly adjusted to the strength of the participant. To women, even more than to men, the setting of the pastime was alluring. From early May till late November there were sun-filled afternoons on level grassy lawns with the gay colors of the targets flashing in the light. For some there was music in the loosed bowstring as it sent the whistling arrow toward the golden heart of the target. In practice shooting the solitary archer found it pleasant to feel the strength of the bow, to gauge the moment of release and to watch the arrow on its arching flight. But the crowning satisfaction was the tournament with its test of nerves and muscles in the colorful setting of a flag-bedecked field.

MAKING THE BOW AND ARROW

Rarely did women share in one of the greatest joys of the bowman — the fashioning of the bow and arrow. There are still devotees of the historic sport who shun elaborate equipment for the sake of mastering the craftsmanship necessary to make their own weapons. Few in number, they alone know the pride of the ancient archer in his handiwork. If the yew's softness of flexure is not readily available, they find satisfactory substitutes in red cedar, swamp ash, or mulberry, shaving the six-foot pieces into round billets some two inches in diameter which are put aside for seasoning. When thoroughly seasoned, the wood is marked for the handhold from which point it is tapered off to the ends with the outer side or back cut flat. Then the handle and body are carefully dressed down to approximately the strength desired and finished off with sandpaper and emery powder. At the handle a piece of green plush is often glued, while the bow tips are set with horn, or else notches for the string are cut in the wood. Strung with unbleached linen thread, its plies twisted loosely for strength, the bow may now be adjusted with precision to the needs of the archer. More difficult and more important is the fashioning of the arrow, for even an inferior bow will shoot well with a perfect arrow. No novice can successfully trim down the durable ash or hickory shaft to one-quarter inch in diameter, sharpen the tip to a point, glue on the three feather veins, and adjust the nock to the string. It is an art almost as exacting as that of the watchmaker, yet the small group of amateur archers who have mastered it testify that no money spent for the perfect arrows of the skilled craftsman can buy the pleasure and satisfaction which comes from making them.

368 American Boys Making Bows and Arrows, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

369 National Archery Association Meet in Boston, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE NATIONAL ARCHERY ASSOCIATION

Since the formation of the National Archery Association a half century ago, interest in target shooting with bow and arrow has waxed and waned in various sections of the country. For the first twenty-five years the clubs of the Middle West were particularly active, sending their best archers to the annual tournaments at Chicago. Regional groups, including the Mississippi Valley, Ohio State, Pacific and Eastern associations, were formed as auxiliaries to the national organization, and their contests served as preliminary tests for the national tournament. In the early competition Mrs. M. C. Howell of Norwood, Ohio, clearly demonstrated her superiority by winning seventeen annual championships. With almost equal regularity Louis W. Maxson of the Potomac Archers won in both the Double York and Double American rounds, establishing records comparable with those of the best English archers. In the first decade of the present century participation in the sport reached a low ebb, but since 1910 there has been a renewal of interest in the eastern states. The communities near New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities have accepted it as less strenuous than tennis, but requiring an equally skillful technique.

ON THE COLLEGE CAMPUS

Of recent years archery has become an important element in the athletic program of the college for women. On many a bright afternoon in early autumn or late spring the smooth stretches of greensward on the campus are alive with youthful wielders of the bow, engaged in practice or competition. Evenly and steadily drawing the bow, carefully aiming the feathered arrow and loosing the taut string, they enjoy the fundamental and most beneficial reactions of rowing and fencing, without the danger of excessive exertion. Above the mere muscular exercise is the artistry which sends the softly whistling arrow to the golden circle of the target.

370 Archery at Smith College, Northampton, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

371 Boy Scout Marksmanship, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America

WOODLAND ROVERS

With the evolution of modern target shooting archery has retained little of the sylvan associations which clustered about it in the days when the bow was a weapon of the chase. Few in this country ever followed the example of the "three merry bowmen" along the Wabash in order to learn a woodcraft as similar to that of the American Indian as nineteenth-century America afforded. Occasionally, however, boyhood's desire to "play Indian" was so directed that bands of young archers roamed the woodland intent upon imitating the dusky aborigines in their skill with bow and arrow and their knowledge of forest lore.

372 Pigeon shooting at the Brighton Beach Fair Grounds, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 9, 1881

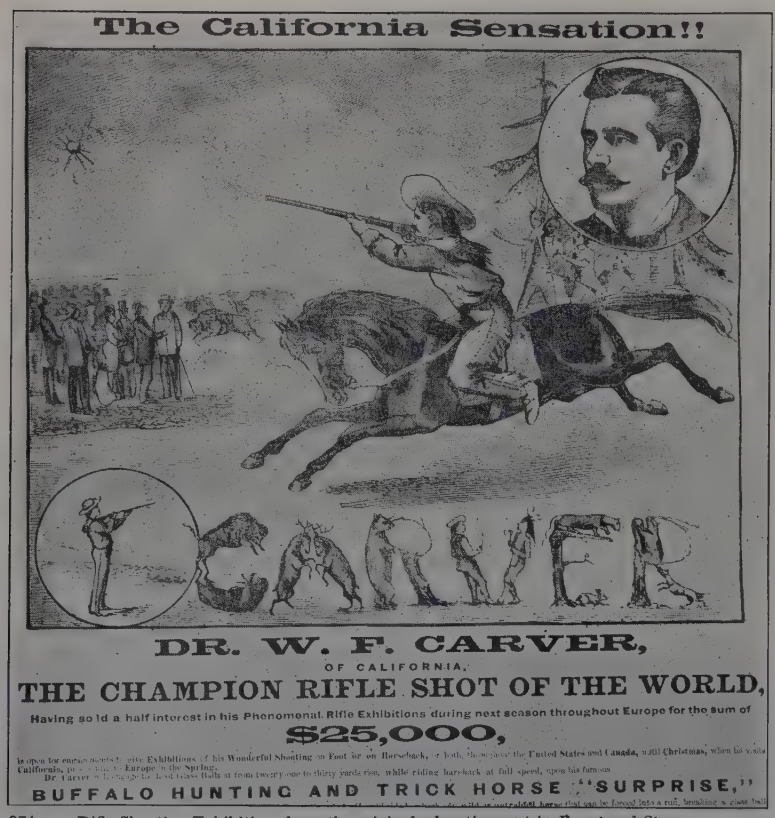
TRAP SHOOTING IN THE OLDEN DAYS

With rifle and shotgun rather than with bow and arrow Americans achieved a reputation for marksmanship. The "turkey shoot" and target practice of colonial days developed into a more scientific testing of skill during the nineteenth century. So long as the matchlock and flintlock were the only types of sporting guns there was little possibility of effective wing shooting. In 1807, however, Reverend Alexander John Forsyth secured a patent for the percussion principle and within twenty years flint and steel began to be replaced by the perfected percussion cap. As improvements in the gunmaker's art rendered aim more dependable and the chance of a killing shot more certain, the gun clubs in the country steadily increased. In 1831 the Sportsmen's Club of Cincinnati, located in the commercial metropolis of the Ohio valley, announced the inauguration of competitive shooting at wild pigeons and quail released from ground traps. Within a decade traps were installed by the Long Island Gun Club, the New York Sportsmen's Club, and other organizations whose membership included many unable or unwilling to seek the joy of wing shooting in the open. These early matches at wild pigeons, described by a contemporary journal as "pursued in a first-class style of excellence," seem to have been conducted according to an American modification of the rules of the Hurlingham Gun Club at Fulham, England. A twenty-one yard rise was standard whether ground traps or plunge traps were used, but the shooter was warned to "hold the butt of the gun below the elbow until the bird takes wing."

CAPTAIN A. H. BOGARDUS

The introduction of the "breech-loaders" in the 'sixties brought a renewed interest in trap shooting, which had begun to wane in spite of the efforts of gun manufacturers to encourage it. Even more influential, perhaps, in the rehabilitation of the sportsmen's clubs was the career of Captain A. H. Bogardus. Born in Albany County, New York, he migrated west as a young man, locating near Elkhart, Illinois, in 1856. In the valley of the Sangamon he found wild fowl which tempted him to tramp day after day, his dogs flushing the birds which fell victim to his unerring aim. Within a dozen years the "confidence begotten of success" caused him to turn to trap shooting that he might match his skill with the best marksmen in the country. The ease with which he disposed of the recognized experts in the Middle West earned him the right to meet Ira Paine of New York, who was regarded as the national champion at the traps. He challenged Paine for the title and met him on January 25, 1871. At the grounds on Long Island, where Hiram Woodruff had trained some of the great trotters of his day, Bogardus lost to the champion. Several months later, however, the verdict was reversed when Paine killed eighty-six birds to his rival's eighty-seven. For almost a quarter century the Illinois marksman held the valuable badge donated by L. L. Lorillard as an emblem of supremacy in the art of trap shooting. His exhibition matches at Dexter Park, Chicago, were witnessed by representatives of sportsmen's clubs from all parts of the nation, some of whom had been attracted to the sport through Bogardus' writings.

373 Captain Adam H. Bogardus, from a drawing by Charles Peters after a daguerreotype in *Outing*, October 1910


The California Sensation!!
CARVER
DR. W. F. CARVER,
OF CALIFORNIA,
THE CHAMPION RIFLE SHOT OF THE WORLD,
Having sold a half interest in his Phenomenal Rifle Exhibitions during next season throughout Europe for the sum of
$25,000,
BUFFALO HUNTING AND TRICK HORSE "SURPRISE,"

374 Rifle Shooting Exhibition, from the original advertisement in *Forest and Stream*, August 29, 1878

"ARTIFICIAL BIRDS"

Bogardus won his fame in the days when wild or tame pigeons were released from ground traps as targets for the shooter. He defended his title in the era of "artificial birds." The constant drain on the supply of tame pigeons and the increasing difficulty of securing wild ones led to experimentation with spring traps and inanimate targets. In 1866 Charles Portlock of Boston introduced a spring trap which threw a glass ball; others patented compositions of pitch and ashes; while some clubs used eggs which streaked the air with yellow. Improvements on Portlock's invention made by Ira Paine in 1876 resulted in the almost universal use of glass balls for a decade. Captain Bogardus and his imitators toured the country demonstrating their remarkable accuracy and endurance. Before a record crowd at Gilmore's Garden in New York City he broke one thousand balls in one hour and forty-two minutes. His feats aroused great interest in trap shooting among city dwellers who could afford to join the gun clubs. Though the clay pigeon was brought nearer perfection and was widely used, live pigeon shoots were still popular with sportsmen at the close of the century.

TRAP SHOOTING ORGANIZES

During the days that Portlock experimented with glass balls and Bogardus broke them with unfailing regularity, trap shooting was at loose ends. No central organization formulated rules and supervised contests. In 1886 the first national tournament was held at New Orleans under the regulations of the National Gun Club. At the same time hundreds of gun clubs were associating in state leagues, which received recognition from the Interstate Association composed of the leading gun and ammunition manufacturers. Each league held an annual tournament or "state shoot" to determine the state championship, while the Interstate Association arranged a contest for the champions, known as the National Amateur Championship, which was one event in the Grand American Handicap covering a week of expert trap shooting. A reorganization of the sport in 1918 placed control of all important tournaments, state meets, and national handicaps in the hands of a greatly enlarged Interstate Trapshooting Association with more than five thousand affiliated gun clubs.

375 The traps at the Westchester Biltmore Club, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE NATIONAL RIFLE ASSOCIATION

376 Trophy presented by the State of New York to the National Guard team making the highest score in the state match, from the drawing in the *Annual Report of the National Rifle Association*, 1873

In 1867 the *Army and Navy Journal* published an article dealing with rifle shooting and its status in the United States which aroused considerable comment in both military and civilian circles. The author was George W. Wingate, then captain of Company A, 22nd Regiment of the New York National Guard. In his opinion, more vigorously expressed several years later, there had been a gradual disappearance of that personal skill in marksmanship and the use of small arms which had distinguished the frontiersmen of earlier generations. Each year a smaller number of Americans, despite the Civil War years, was learning to handle a rifle and that in the face of new emphasis placed upon marksmanship in war as a result of the perfection of the long-range breechloader. Members of the National Guard often served their full terms of enlistment without firing a single shot. Such were the considerations which induced a group of national guardsmen, army officers and civilian sportsmen to form the National Rifle Association on November 24, 1871.

377 Match at Creedmoor between the Canadian and Amateur Rifle Club Teams, September 25, 1875, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, October 16, 1875

AMATEUR RIFLE CLUBS

At the time the national association to promote rifle shooting was organized there were a score of amateur clubs interested in long- and short-range target shooting. Prominent among them were the Philadelphia Schuetzen Verein dating from 1846, the Massachusetts Rifle Club formed during the Civil War at Boston, and the San Francisco Schuetzen Verein which furnished five members of the team competing in the Centennial events at Philadelphia in 1876. These older clubs were quickened into activity by the national association, which was also highly successful in fostering auxiliary organizations among civilians as well as military groups. In 1879 one hundred and forty-four clubs, many of them affiliated with the National Rifle Association, maintained outdoor ranges or indoor galleries where the nation was mastering anew the skill so common in its earlier years.

AT CREEDMOOR

The first constructive action of the National Rifle Association was the building of an adequate range for competitive shooting and national tournaments. With the financial support of the State of New York a tract of ninety acres on Long Island fifteen miles northeast of Brooklyn was acquired. Ranges were promptly installed and in 1873, despite the business depression, the Creedmoor grounds were opened with elaborate ceremonies and several creditable rifle matches. Improvements were constantly made by the Association until 1889, when thirty ranges were available for members of the national organization. In that year New York purchased the tract, using it for the next twenty years as the training ground for the state's riflemen.

378 Rifle Practice at Creedmoor, from a drawing by Thure de Thulstrup in *Harper's Weekly*, September 24, 1881

379 International Match of American and British Riflemen at Creedmoor, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, October 6, 1877

THE FIRST INTERNATIONAL RIFLE MATCH

The year after Creedmoor had become the rendezvous of the nation's expert marksmen, the Amateur Rifle Club of New York accepted a challenge from the Irish team which had just defeated the best riflemen of England and Scotland for the championship of the British Isles. As the result of an agreement between Colonel George W. Wingate, acting for the Americans, and Major Arthur B. Leech, leader of the Irish team, it was arranged that the competition should be between teams of six men, fifteen shots each, at eight hundred, nine hundred and one thousand yards. September 16, 1874, was a gala day at Creedmoor. The New York press hailed the event as an evidence of international amity and paid high tribute to the nation's Irish guests. On the ranges a thrilling duel took place with the American team winning a three-point victory when the last shot was scored. Interest was added to the event by reason of the fact that the Irish used muzzle-loaders while the Americans, Bodine, Dakin, Fulton, Gildersleeve, Hepburn, and Yale, all shot with breechloaders, which proved quite as effective as the older type of rifle.

THE PALMA TROPHY

In 1875 American riflemen enjoyed the hospitality of their Irish rivals at Dollymount, where their marksmanship was even better than it had been the previous year at Creedmoor. Out of a possible 1080 points they scored 968 against their opponents 929. As a part of the centennial celebration of our independence we issued a challenge to the riflemen of the world in 1876 to compete for the possession of the Palma Centennial Trophy. Competition was limited to teams of eight marksmen. Scotland, Ireland, Australia, and Canada sent representatives, but the American team outscored them on the Creedmoor ranges. During the following two years the trophy remained in our possession. When no challengers appeared in 1879 competition was suspended, not to be revived until the opening of the twentieth century.

380 The American Rifle Team, from a drawing after a photograph by Rockwood in *Harper's Weekly*, July 10, 1875

381 Trophies of the National Rifle Championship Matches, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE PROMOTION OF RIFLE PRACTICE

THE last quarter of the nineteenth century was marked by constantly increasing interest in marksmanship on the part of civilians as well as of those in military service. That there might be a closer alliance between the two groups, especially desirable from the standpoint of national defense, Congress created in 1903 the National Board for Promotion of Rifle Practice. Composed of twenty-one members — eight from the National Rifle Association, eight appointed by the President from the country at large and six representing the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps — the Board became the controlling agency in the sport, and spokesman for the United States Government in matters affecting military ranges and rifles. Through the agency of the National Rifle Association its decisions were recognized by the affiliated clubs of the nation.

TEACHING THE YOUTH TO SHOOT

THE educational institutions which received a share of the Government's bounty under the terms of the Morrill Act, passed in the midst of the Civil War, were required to offer instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts "including military tactics." Among the cadet corps organized to carry out the last part of the injunction there was considerable interest in rifle shooting, which resulted in the formation of clubs even though equipment was scarce and ranges were few. With the decision of the National Rifle Association in 1907 to invite the affiliation of college and other scholastic rifle teams the youth of the nation were encouraged to emulate the marksmanship of their elders. Five years later sixty-five teams, divided into two great leagues, were engaged in intercollegiate competition. Not infrequently the intercollegiate champion attained high place in the national outdoor matches. In the large city high schools of the East, where outdoor ranges were seldom available, the "subtarget gun," an electrical mechanism which reproduced in miniature the essential factors of long-and-short range shooting, brought thousands into the scholastic rifle clubs. As part of its preparedness program after 1914 the Government extended liberal aid to these junior organizations, which supplied a small but sorely needed nucleus of young men trained in the use of the military rifle.

382 Evander Childs High School team in competition for the Du Pont trophy, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

383 The bicycle match at Lillie-bridge, West Brompton, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, June 30, 1875

THE BICYCLE OF 1876

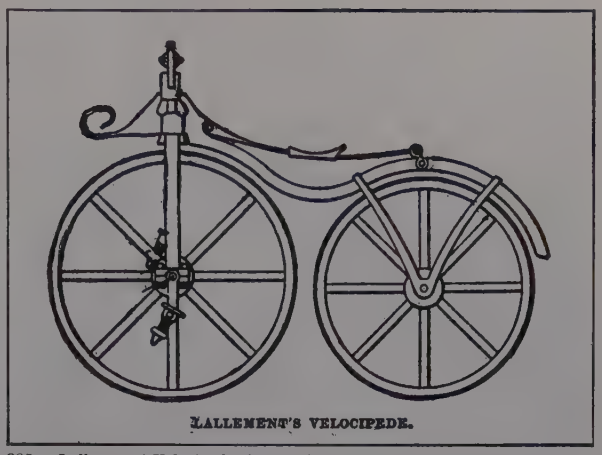
The sporting events of 1876 — the international rifle matches at Creedmoor, the rowing regatta on the Schuylkill, the gala games of the New York Athletic Club, the first season of the National League's pennant race — aroused only passing comment. Several hundred acres in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, scene of the Centennial Exposition, was the object of the nation's real interest. Machinery Hall with its majestic Corliss engine was always filled. So were the adjacent buildings where manufactured products, mechanical processes, and new inventions bore mute witness to the progress of the machine age. Among the interesting articles which European manufacturers hoped would find a large market in America was a small display of English-made bicycles. Thousands gave them a cursory inspection, listing them as another foolish fad; some recalled with grim smiles their previous failure to master the velocipede; a few were impressed by the improvements which foreign inventors had made in the old wooden "bone-shaker." The bicycle of 1876 possessed a high front wheel between fifty and sixty inches in diameter to which were attached cranklike pedals and a small rear wheel scarcely eighteen inches high. The two wheels, each equipped with a solid rubber tire, were connected by a curved "backbone" surmounted by a none too soft saddle from which the rider carefully steered the machine around whatever obstacles threatened disaster.

THE DRAISINE OR PEDESTRIAN CURRICLE

The wheels exhibited at the Philadelphia Centennial represented but one stage in the evolution of the modern bicycle, a process which apparently began early in the nineteenth century. Shortly after 1815 Carl von Drais, Baron of Sauerbronn, built a machine for use while performing his duties as master of forests on the estates of the Grand Duke of Baden. His invention was exhibited at Paris in 1818, where it was known as a draisine. The same year Denis Johnson received a patent in England for a slightly modified draisine which he called a "pedestrian curricle." This improved draisine, having speedily achieved the appellation of "hobby horse," was brought to the United States in 1819. It was designed to promote speed in walking. Between two wooden wheels of approximately equal size was suspended a small saddle by means of heavy springs. The rider, or rather walker, bestrode the saddle with his feet touching the ground, thus enabling him to propel the curricle. On level stretches and down grades the device was serviceable, but pushing it uphill was not calculated to arouse the pedestrian's enthusiasm. In this country its use was chiefly confined to the eastern cities, particularly Boston, Philadelphia, and New York, where for a time it occasioned quite a furore. Young blades rode up and down the Bowery, coasting from Chatham Square down grade to City Hall Park. Bowling Green was the scene of riding exhibitions to assist those who wished to master the new machine, while a few men were canny enough to capitalize the fad by opening "riding schools."

384 The draisine, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, March 6, 1869

PIERRE LALLEMENT



385 Lallements' Velocipede, from a drawing in *The Wheelman*, New York, October 4, 1887

For forty years no essential improvements were made in the curricle, though French and English manufacturers found a considerable market for tricycles, both hand and foot driven, and for children's velocipedes. One of the most successful of these firms was Michaux et Cie., in Paris, famous for its ingenious mechanics. In 1855 an old draisine or "hobby horse," few of which were then in use, was brought in for repairs. The task was assigned to Pierre Lallement, a young mechanic, who determined to make improvements upon the machine which would render it truly serviceable. For several years he experimented at odd hours with the idea of a hand-driven velocipede, operated by means of a piston rod connected to a crank which was attached to one end of the front wheel axle. While at work on such a model he saw the possibility of converting the axle-crank into a pedal which would make foot propulsion the means of locomotion. In 1863 Lallement finished his first velocipede. A patent was immediately taken out by Michaux et Cie., who built a number for exhibition at the Paris Exposition in 1865.

THE "BONE SHAKER"

In 1866 Pierre Lallement came to the United States. While he was looking for work in New Haven, he built one of his velocipedes and rode it around the streets of the city. An observant Yankee named Carrol thought he saw a business opportunity. Consequently, the firm of Lallement and Carrol received a patent and began the manufacture of two-wheeled velocipedes. But the American public, unlike the French, was not interested. Greatly discouraged Lallement abandoned the project and returned to France. Meanwhile the Hanlon brothers, famous acrobats of the period, were using a velocipede in their act and finding it a great deal of fun. In 1869 they put on the market a "bicycle" which incorporated many of their own modifications of Lallement's basic idea. Their venture was an immediate success, partly because Americans had learned that the ladies and gentlemen of the Second Empire had set the fashion of riding up and down the Paris boulevards. Enthusiasm ran high. Young men who saw the art demonstrated by professional acrobats practiced secretly in barns and abandoned warehouses and straightway became patrons of the retailers who dispensed arnica and court plaster. Riding schools and indoor rings were opened and prospered mightily from the patronage of those who were determined to learn to ride. Manufacturers could scarcely supply the demand when the "velocipede craze" reached its height in the late summer of 1869. But the crash came quickly. Those who took the wooden-framed, iron-shod wheels out on the streets and roads discovered that they were heavy, clumsy, and uncomfortable. Lacking adequate springs, with the power applied to the pedals at a difficult angle the "bone shaker" soon jarred its rider out of his complacency. Within a year few were seen on the streets, and many a carriage maker looked ruefully over a store room piled high with unsaleable wheels.

386 Scene in a velocipede riding school, New York, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, February 13, 1869

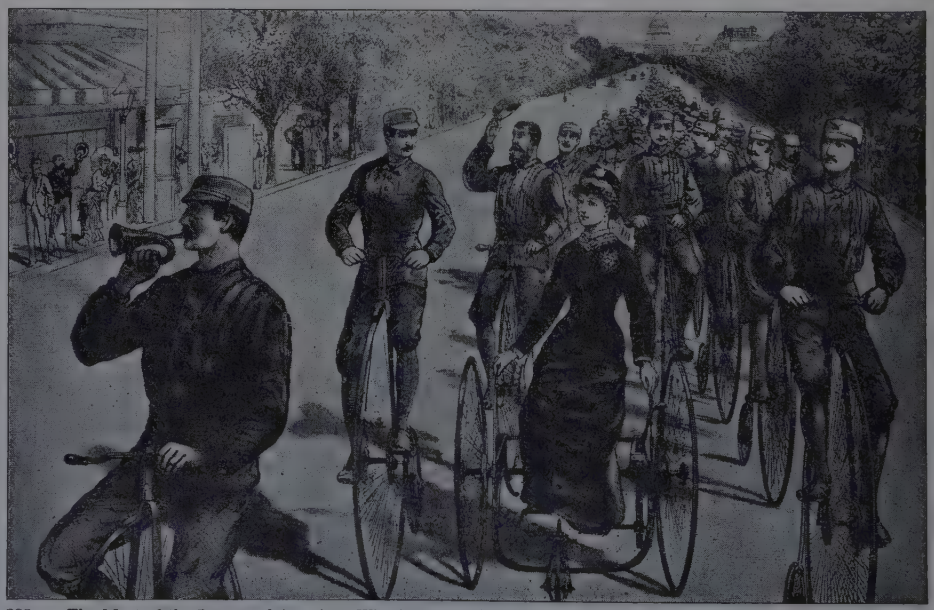
387 The Columbia light roadster, from a lithograph in the *Bicycling World and L. A. W. Bulletin*, March 30, 1888

THE DAY OF THE "ORDINARY"

Between 1870 and 1880 the "bone-shaker" was transformed into the high-wheeled bicycle, similar to the ones exhibited at Philadelphia. The wooden framework gave place to iron; metal wheels with India rubber tires followed; then came steel wire spokes designed to lighten the whole apparatus. Each improvement made the bicycle more popular until it ceased to be regarded as a curiosity and became a delightful, but somewhat precarious, resource for open-air recreation. Its first devotees came from the ranks of former velocipedists and from those seeking to regain health by a life in the open. Having courageously faced the danger of "taking a header" over the high wheel, many riders waxed eloquent in describing the benefits and delights of cycling.

THE LEAGUE OF AMERICAN WHEELMEN

The first formal association of cyclists was the Boston Bicycle Club which owed its organization in 1878 to the enthusiasm of Charles E. Pratt, a Boston lawyer, who had turned to riding for his health's sake. Pratt became an ardent champion of the sport through the columns of his journal, *The Bicycling World*. When the New York club suggested that a grand meet of wheelmen be held at Newport on Decoration Day, 1880, Pratt used the gathering to effect a national organization. With several hundred cyclists from the important cities of the country present, the League of American Wheelmen was formed "to promote the general interests of bicycling, to ascertain, defend, and protect the rights of wheelmen, and to encourage and facilitate touring." Its membership grew steadily each year, reaching more than ten thousand in 1886. There was much for the League to do. Through its legal department it fought village ordinances and municipal regulations, which classed bicycles in the same category as velocipedes and barred them from the public parks and main thoroughfares. It recommended the construction of bicycle paths to facilitate the short rides of local clubs. Likewise, the touring bureau waged a campaign for macadam roads, circulating pamphlets dealing with road construction and mending which were inspired by self-interest but contained sound advice to county and municipal authorities. A process of education was inaugurated which has borne fruit in the days of the automobile.



388 The Meet of the League of American Wheelmen at Washington D. C., from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, May 24, 1884

AROUND THE WORLD ON A BICYCLE

In 1883 a Californian named Thomas Stevens determined to make a trip around the world on a bicycle. He was apparently little worried by the fact that he could not ride and knew no language save his own. With a few days practice to his credit he boldly set out from San Francisco in April, reaching Boston the following August. Here he was delayed for several months until Colonel A. A. Pope, one of the pioneer bicycle manufacturers, volunteered the necessary financial backing for his tour. Thousands followed Stevens through the reports in the press as he pedaled across Europe, received the gifts of Persian potentates, and satisfied the curiosity of inquiring villagers in India and the Far East. His return to San Francisco in January 1887, marked by a great ovation from the wheelmen of the country, was the occasion for editorials, lectures, and sermons on the rôle of the bicycle in modern life.

389 Thomas Stevens on the Expert Columbia, from a lithograph in the *Bicycling World and L. A. W. Wheelmen Bulletin*, March 30, 1888

WEEDING OUT THE PROFESSIONAL

On his return Stevens found the League of American Wheelmen strong in numbers but disturbed by difficulties over the status of those members who had won fame as racers. From the day of its organization racing had been one of the interesting features of each annual meet, drawing many who were not cyclists to the convention city. In addition, great tournaments were held at specially constructed tracks in Hartford, Connecticut, and Springfield, Massachusetts, in the early days. The participants were all considered amateurs though some were known to have connections with bicycle manufacturers whose wheels they invariably rode. Refusal of these racers to state the precise nature of their financial relations with the dealers caused the racing committee of the League to declare them all professionals in 1886. Despite an attempt of the American Cyclists Union to create a new classification of "promateurs" who drew a salary but did not race for money prizes, the line between professional and amateur wheelmen was sharply drawn. The professionals, often referred to as "scorchers," established the meets which ultimately developed into the "six-day bike races" of the present day.

390 Bicycle Tournament at Springfield, Mass., from a drawing by Henry Sandham in *Harper's Weekly*, September 25, 1886

391 From an advertisement of the Monarch Cycle Manufacturing Co., in the *Bicycle Scrapbook*, New York Public Library

THE FIRST "SAFETY"

Courage and perseverance were outstanding characteristics of the cyclists of the 'eighties. Most of them were young men of daring disposition who found in the uncertainties of bicycling a zest which more than compensated for the bumps and bruises of roadway spills. The women whose names appeared on the club lists were associate members, occasionally accompanying the club on short runs in their single or tandem tricycles. So cumbersome and heavy were these vehicles that they offered little inducement to the women of the cities to seek that close association with nature which had been vital in the lives of their grandmothers. Not until the appearance of the drop-frame bicycle in 1888 did women to whom a horse was a vain dream secure a substitute within their means on which they might ride forth into a world of new experiences. Popularly known as the "safety," this new bicycle, with its light and convenient frame, its wheels of moderate size equipped with pneumatic tires, made cycling possible for everyone. It was hailed by the manufacturers as one of the greatest products of the mechanical age. Physicians and publicists prophesied that the bicycle would prove a great boon for women in providing them with healthful exercise which would steady their nerves, increase their muscular vigor, and open their minds to the beauties of the out-of-doors. The ranks of the cyclists increased rapidly when the safety appeared on the market. Impressed by the universal interest in wheels, President Andrews of Brown referred to cycling as "an abiding national habit," while a song writer, quick to catch the mood of the moment, won fleeting fame with "Daisy Bell":

"Daisy, Daisy, give me your answer true,
I'm half crazy, all for the love of you!
It won't be a stylish marriage,
I can't afford a carriage,
But you'll look sweet upon the seat
Of a bicycle built for two!"

ATTIRED FOR THE RIDE

To say that the bicycle effected a revolution in women's dress would be a gross exaggeration, yet within a few years it gave women the liberty for which reformers had agitated during several generations — the liberty to wear any decent, comfortable raiment they chose. There was no uniform attire for the rider. Simplicity was generally the aim. Most journals which discussed the matter pointed out the slight change in ordinary dress necessary to prepare the cyclist for an afternoon's run over city streets or country roads. In August 1895, the *Chautauquan*, which reached thousands of feminine readers, suggested a proper costume of gray or dust-colored cloth. "The trouserettes are ample and fall below the knee, where they meet black gaiters so long that no stocking is shown. Attached at the waist under a broad belt of black gros-grain ribbon fastened by a silver buckle is a bodice with box plaits in the back, made to lie flat and fit the figure closely. There is a little fulness in the waist in front and it buttons on the left side with a small pocket on the right breast. The sleeves are bias; the collar high; a white sailor hat with black ribbon, white veil and gray gloves complete the costume."

392 Bicycling costumes, from a drawing in *Cycle*, New York, May 1897

THE MICHAUX CLUB

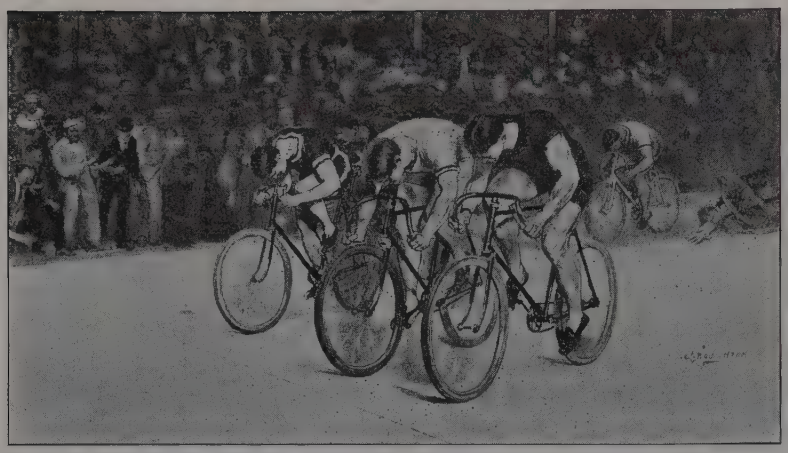
THE bicycle had become enormously popular with the masses before it received the approval of the arbiters of fashion. Contrary to the usual order of things Newport, Bar Harbor, and Southampton followed the lead of "butcher, baker, and candlestick maker" in accepting cycling as a feature of the social season. Americans who had learned to ride on the asphalt pavements of Paris and the smooth wooded drives in the Bois de Boulogne were responsible for the Michaux Club of New York with its exclusive membership. After 1894 its roster contained the names of Jays, Beekmans, Drexels, Rockefellers, Duers, Goulds, and many others of social prominence, who performed intricate figures as they rode in changing formations to the music of the band in their spacious hall. Performing the Virginia reel on wheels to the plaudits of an enthusiastic gallery was no more delightful than the road run under bright October skies to Claremont or Coney Island with more than one hundred cyclists in line, exemplars of the grace of the accomplished wheelman. At the turn of the century the bicycle shared honors with the horse and the yacht among the frequenters of fashionable resorts.

393 A drill ride at the Michaux Club, New York, from a drawing by A. J. Keller in *Harper's Weekly*, April 11, 1896

THE HEYDAY OF THE BICYCLE

FOR a decade after 1890 the bicycle performed the function now reserved for the automobile in the work and play of the American people. Manufacturers who could easily convert their establishments turned to the production of wheels. They generally prospered. In the year that "General" Coxey led his army of unemployed to Washington the bicycle makers could not supply the dealers with sufficient quantities of the various models. "While makers and sellers of wheels and wheel equipment throve, liverymen and horse-dealers did less business." On a bicycle the village doctor made his daily rounds; the postman rode to cover the miles of his route; the clergyman found the wheel convenient for his pastoral visits; the salesman used it to call upon the trade. In the national guard units bicycle corps were organized and some looked forward to an army on wheels. Clubs of cyclists were everywhere. Some emphasized the companionable run along the cinder paths which paralleled scenic highways; others gloried in the uniform rank, drilled to perform intricate evolutions at the sound of a bugle when out on parade; a few sought to sponsor racing "cracks" or to establish speed records in the road races. Their members were drawn from young and old, rich and poor, all enticed by the opportunity for speed. Outside the small army which belonged to formal clubs were thousands of unaffiliated cyclists who enjoyed the rythmic exercise in the open over the shady park paths or the less traveled roads of the countryside. Some rode for health's sake, others were eager to display their skill as wheelmen, but the majority used the bicycle as a means of leaving behind familiar scenes and finding that which was interesting and new. After 1900, as the automobile was slowly perfected, cycling became less socially significant and the bicycle, discarded gradually by men and women, remained merely a plaything for boys and girls or a vehicle of convenience for a few.

394 A letter carrier on the Volunteer Columbia, from a lithograph in the *Bicycling World and L. A. W. Bulletin*, March 30, 1888



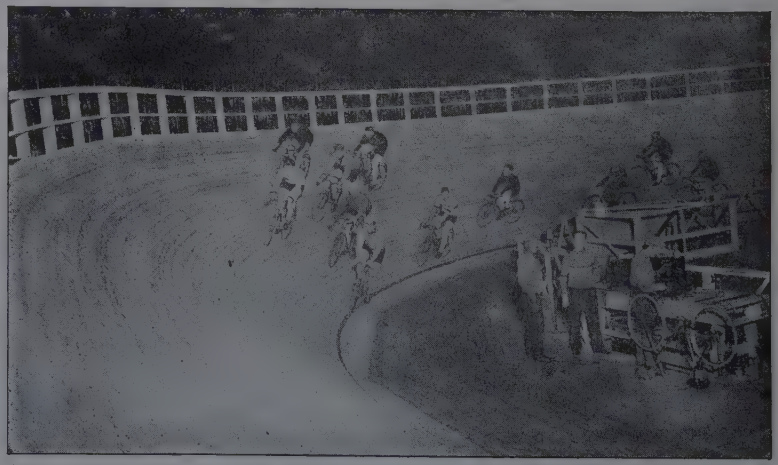
395 From the drawing *Who Wins?* by C. Broughton in *Harper's Weekly*, April 11, 1896

THE "SCORCHER"

An interesting by-product of the bicycle age was the "scorcher." Often in the employ of the manufacturer of a popular make he was paid to demonstrate the speed and endurance of his machine. He could be relied upon for short sprints or long runs. Clad in black tights he was a familiar figure at all races where he could secure permission to display the qualities of the Columbia, Imperial, Monarch, or some other well-known model. As competition became keen for the favor of the public, the "scorcher" resorted to interminable races against time in order that his employer might claim a new superiority for the firm's product. In 1886 Albert Schock, a veteran of the high wheel, gave a magnificent demonstration of his own stamina rather than the merits of the bicycle by pedaling one thousand nine and one-half miles in seventy-two hours. The transition from the old high wheel to the "safety" meant little change in the "scorcher's" profession for he was still a recognized feature of the bicycle tournaments and indoor shows.

THE SIX-DAY BIKE RACES

The climax of the professional racers' skill was reached in the six-day grinds. So popular did they prove with the spectators that they have survived the waning interest in the bicycle. The first recorded six-day race was staged in Birmingham, England, in 1889. Two years later a score of professionals appeared in Madison Square Garden on the ordinary high wheels of the period. In 1893 Albert Schock upset all calculations by riding away from his rivals on a new "safety" bicycle. That marked the disappearance of the high wheels in the races. The early contests were gruelling affairs. Until 1898, when the New York legislature branded the sport as "inhuman," each contestant rode the entire one hundred and forty-two hours, snatching morsels of food from the hands of trainers as he circled the track and fighting off fatigue with ten-minute winks of sleep. The promoters circumvented the New York law by modifying the rules governing the races. Today the struggle is between teams of two riders who share the burden. Four times in each twenty-four hours there is a series of sprints for cash prizes and points in the standing of the teams. To the uninitiated the performance sounds monotonous and dull. Once within view of the track, however, he is apt to fall under the spell of the whirling cyclists, the glaring lights, the vociferous enthusiasm of the crowd. He forgets the commercialism of it all in his admiration for the courage and stamina of the riders. He learns to cheer his favorite in the sprints, to jeer the riders when they do not give their best, to sense the moment when one of them will pedal furiously ahead of the "pack" in an attempt to "steal a lap." He glories in the ensuing "jam" as the "pack" answers the challenge and strives to prevent the daring rider from gaining a lead. In short, he stays much longer than he realizes and vows not to return, a vow which he seldom keeps. He becomes the "eternal fan" who keeps the six-day bike races on the boards.

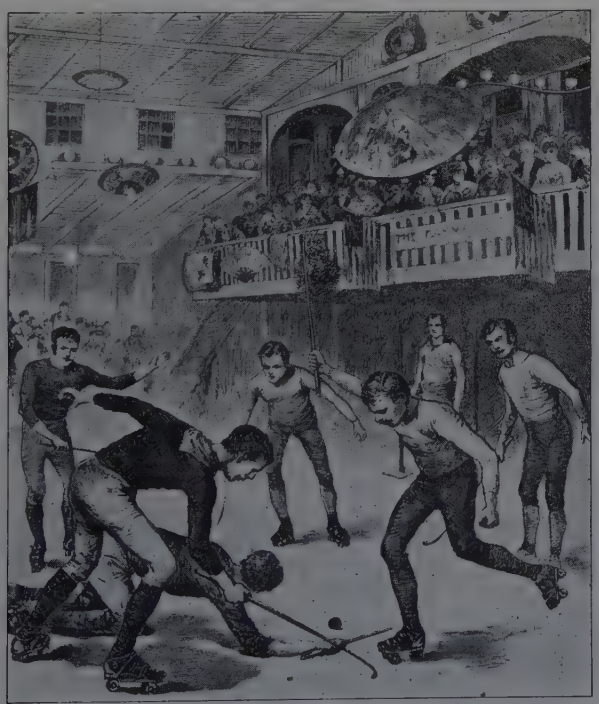


396 Six-day bike race at Madison Square Garden, December 3, 1928, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

THE ROLLER SKATE

397 A skating rink, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, April 24, 1875

During the decade of the 'eighties, while many Americans were tempting fate astride the high-wheeled bicycle, others of their fellow countrymen had found a novel means of locomotion in the roller skate. In 1863 the mechanical genius of an Englishman, James L. Plimpton, made possible on smooth pavement and wooden floor the gliding movements of the ice skater. His invention, a skate on four wooden rollers set in pairs, caused the speedy construction of great rinks in England and on the Continent to accommodate the crowds anxious to test their skill. Even the British nobility accepted "rinking" as a sport worthy of its patronage. With high foreign endorsements roller skating was introduced into the United States just preceding the Centennial year. With Americans roller skating assumed the proportions of a popular craze. The necessary equipment was inexpensive; a certain measure of skill was not difficult to attain; and every city and small town soon had its rink. Shrewd business men rehabilitated old warehouses and abandoned factories, where they rented the rollers to energetic, if not always graceful, skaters, who circled the rink to the music of a band. By 1885 more than twenty million dollars was invested in roller-skating properties. The rinks became social centers for the community, as women and girls in increasing numbers adopted the new recreation. On the little wheels there was excitement for the expert figure skater as well as for the less agile performer who followed the rhythm of the music with a charming companion at his side, or tested his ability to keep pace with the fastest skaters on the floor. For ten years the tide of interest ran strong and then receded only to return in the first decade of the twentieth century when the ball-bearing skate and the commodious, well-appointed halls brought larger crowds than ever to the rinks.



398 Polo on roller skates at Newport, from a drawing by C. W. Weldon in *Harper's Weekly*, September 8, 1883

ARISTOCRATS OF THE LITTLE WHEELS

Most roller skaters were content with a mediocre performance, but occasionally some frequenter of the rinks mastered the intricacies of a bewildering variety of figures. He was always sure of an audience. At the opening of the Casino Rink in Chicago in 1882 "Professor" A. F. Smith entertained more than three thousand spectators with his marvelous feats on the little wheels. His repertoire included some two hundred figures, many of which were executed with a partner. Others who cared little for artistic skating developed an amazing agility which enable them to enliven the rinks with games of push ball, basket ball, and roller polo. The latter, not unlike the "shinny" so familiar to the small boy of the period, attained national prominence when a "polo league" was formed in 1882 with teams from seven mid-western cities. High jumping contests and races also enabled promoters to keep alive popular interest in the sport of the rinks.

399 Skating on Jamaica Pond, Boston, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, April 3, 1858

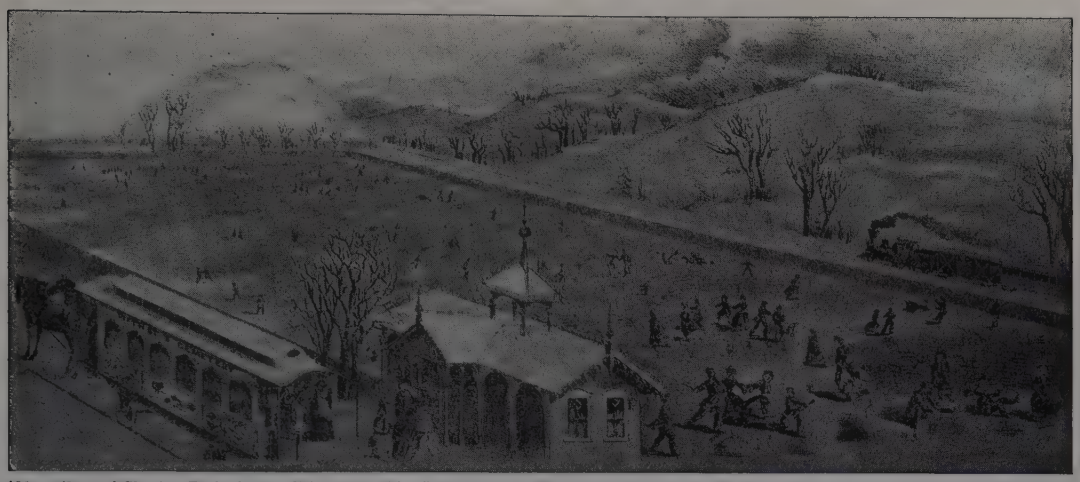
ON FROZEN STREAM AND POND

ROLLER skating provided an indoor supplement to exhilarating exercise on the ice. From colonial days Americans had answered the invitation of frozen stream and pond by strapping on their wooden skates with iron runners for a swift glide over the glassy surface. Never had they responded in such numbers, however, as in the middle decade of the nineteenth century. Then the shallow pond deep in the woods, the creek that meandered through the village, or the park lake with its row of willows became the Mecca for young and old as soon as freezing temperatures had covered the water with a coating of crystal. On runners with grotesquely curved ends the "piebald company of skaters, in plaids and furs, crimson balmorals and tucks, flowing scarfs and jaunty little hats" circled in pairs or swept like winged Mercuries across the ice. The frost-laden wind was a spur to action which quickened the blood and gave such a fillip to the spirits that cold was forgotten in the thrill of motion and color. There was always comedy and excitement: the amiable but awkward gentleman who strongly suggested Mr. Winkle of Pickwick's select circle, the rosy-cheeked maiden in crinoline with her retinue of gallant courtiers, or the adventurous cutter of "pigeon wings" whose dénouement upon the slippery surface made the jovial crowd hilarious.

THE URBAN SKATING RINK

FORTUNATE were the communities where nature supplied the proper setting for those who loved to skate. No man-made rink could reproduce the charm of the winding stream where the ice bent and swayed beneath its human freight and ominous cracklings supplied the intoxication of adventure to youths who ultimately discovered "how long it would hold." No artificial pond, however elegant its appointments, could call up the associations which clustered about the sylvan pool where in summer the boys of the countryside swam and in winter they and their elders congregated for skating. Yet the urban rink fulfilled its purpose. It afforded "blithesome sport" for the "jejune belles and beaux" oppressed by the "emptiness and ennui of parlor life" in the typical American city of fifty years ago. It offered to the gentleman in spotless broadcloth and navy blue reefer and to the lady in furs a chance to renew their youth. Under the slanting rays of the afternoon sun or beneath the glare of powerful calcium lights they mingled with a motley crowd whose common bond was the glistening steel runner.

400 Skating at the New St. Nicholas Rink, New York, from a drawing by B. West Clinedinst in *Leslie's Weekly*, March 12, 1896



401 Central Skating Park, from a lithograph, *The Central Skating Park Polka*, Pittsburgh, 1865, courtesy of The Old Print Shop, New York

THE SKATING CLUBS

The city was also the home of the formal clubs which fostered the development of "fancy skating." They rose to prominence in the latter years of the decade of the 'fifties when a group of Philadelphians reorganized an existing club to form the Philadelphia Skating and Humane Society. Pledged to "foster the art of skating and to save life on frozen rivers and lakes," its members appeared with coils of rope for use in emergencies. Likewise, the New York Skating Club was prepared to perform the functions of a rescue squad in the days when twenty-five or thirty thousand cut the glassy surface of the ponds in Central Park. After 1860 the eastern clubs constructed rinks of their own and devoted greater attention to figure skating. One of the earliest competitive exhibitions was held at Philadelphia in 1863, and five years later the American Skating Congress in session at Pittsburgh formulated the canons of the art. Nevertheless, the outstanding artist on steel runners, Jackson Haines, found that his fellow countrymen were little interested in the graceful movements of the dance which he performed with ease and accuracy on the ice. In Europe, where his first appearances in 1864 were greeted by enthusiastic audiences, Haines became the founder of the "continental school" of figure skating with its large figures and movements set to the rhythm of dance music.

DEVELOPMENT OF FIGURE SKATING

Some Americans interested in the artistry of skating followed Jackson Haines to Europe; others sought to create an appreciative support of the art in this country. The latter were not entirely disappointed. In New England the work of Colonel W. H. Fuller bore fruit in the exhibitions of the New England Skating Association, which sent many performers to the championships sponsored by the National Amateur Skating Association after 1886. With the inauguration of international matches Americans demonstrated their ability to equal the best European skaters, though their manner of execution differed slightly from that of the "continental school." In 1908 Irving Brokaw of New York skated to pattern with such nice precision that he won the international prize at St. Moritz, where a chain of lakes embosomed in the Alps six thousand feet above the sea still affords a glorious setting for the competitive exhibitions of the greatest figure skaters in the world. There are staged the Olympic competitions in a wide range of winter sports.

402 Irving Brokaw Skating in Central Park, New York, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

403 Timothy Donoghue, Jr., from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, January 26, 1889

SPEED ON THE ICE

Not grace but speed has been the goal of most of our skaters. To attain even mediocre ability in figure skating required long and patient practice. It could best be learned on the smooth ice of the rink. But most Americans found it more exciting to breast the biting wind along some winding stream, where the ice was often rough and uncertain, than to execute repeatedly on some indoor rink the curves and figures of geometric design. Spectators also seemed to find the race more interesting than the contest of skill. From the village of Newburgh on the Hudson came Charles June, who in 1838 earned a reputation for speed on his iron-shod skates. There, also, lived Timothy Donoghue, the "Newburgh Cyclone," whose sons Joseph and Timothy were champions during the decade of the 'nineties. The elder Donoghue achieved fame in the days when phenomenal records were credited to the leading skaters of the country upon the flimsiest sort of evidence. After 1884 the United States Skating Association controlled competition and the honors won by George D. Phillips, the younger Donoghues, John S. Johnson and John Nilsson represented actual achievement. Johnson's mark of thirty-one minutes and eleven seconds for ten miles still stands, but the sprinting of Phillips and Donoghue has been surpassed in recent years by Jewtraw, Gorman, Forsman and Thunberg.

404 Joseph F. Donoghue, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, January 26, 1889

THE INDOOR RINK

Not many decades ago skating was limited to those sections where nature provided the icy surface of river and lake. Today climate is no longer a determining factor in the sport. San Diego, California, as well as Portland, Maine, can enjoy the rhythmic movements on steel runners, for one of the incidental achievements of the industrial age has been the indoor skating rink. As mechanical difficulties have been conquered by resourceful engineers, the cost of creating ample areas of artificial ice has diminished sufficiently to permit its commercial exploitation. In urban communities and regions where "Jack Frost" seldom manifests his power, it has provided a valuable substitute for the old-time skating pond. Its presence has enabled the figure skater to perfect his art under the most favorable conditions and has induced many novices to renew the beneficial exercise of youth. But fortunate is the boy who can test his Christmas skates for the first time on a stretch of ice where the wind sweeps the snow before his awkward glide and rough spots bring disaster.

405 From the frieze *Brothers of the Wind*, by R. Tait McKenzie, courtesy of the artist

COASTING

406 Coasting Carnival at Albany, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, January 30, 1886

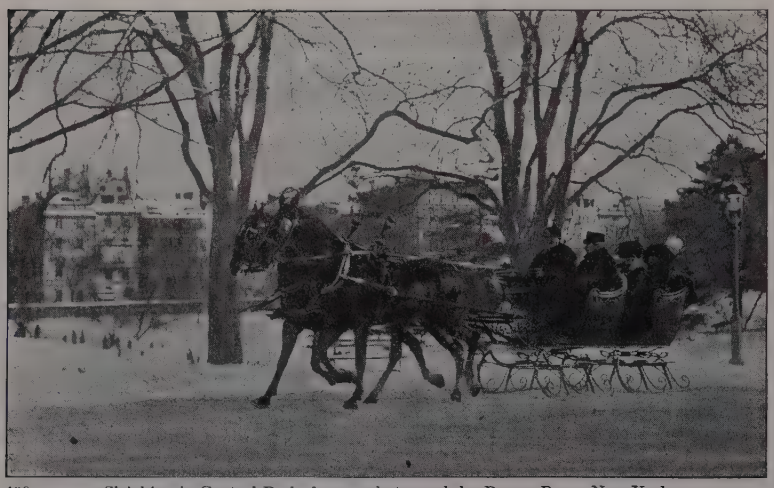
Coasting is a form of skating with several riders sharing one pair of runners. As the bones of animals furnished the first crude skates, so barrel staves were elemental in the development of sleds. Single staves called "jumpers" and "skippers" with a barrel head for a seat supplied a thrill not soon forgotten. More conservative were the home-made sleds of the early nineteenth century; some shod with flat iron runners, others of unshod wood. In the 'fifties came the novelty of the round "spring runners," supposedly more comfortable and faster than the flat sled. At the same time the "ripper" or "bob" made its appearance. It consisted of two sleds in tandem arrangement connected by a plank. A steering apparatus permitted the driver to turn the forward sled as he wished. Some of the "bobs" developed into pretentious affairs, equipped with headlights, brakes, gongs and cushioned seats. The names, sometimes as well known as those of the fast yachts, appeared in gold and bright-colored letters on the side. Models were carefully planned with an eye to utility and beauty.

407 Coasting in the Country, from a drawing by Granville Perkins in *Harper's Weekly*, February 17, 1877

DOWN THE HILL

The winter's first heavy snowfall was childhood's carnival. Out came the sleds of all sizes and shapes and away went the boys to the steepest hill in the neighborhood. Not for them were the beauties of the landscape, the trees bending low under loads of "ermine," the fences softened by small mounds of white, the streets hidden beneath fantastic drifts, and over all the fields the sifted powder of the snow. Their chief concern was to smooth the "slide" on some sharp slope so that an ever-increasing momentum might carry them fast and far. Throughout the day there was unceasing merriment as the array of sleds increased in number. There were "long sleds, short sleds, and double runners, from the rudest to the most elegant style of construction." Challenges were issued, races were arranged, snow fights developed, and coasting was often forgotten while snow balls flew thick and fast. To the coasting hill thronged the older folk of the community, some to try the shining path in the snow, others wistfully to watch the bobsleds whizz past with the laughter and shouts of youth rending the crisp air.

408 *American Winter Scenes — Morning*, from a lithograph, 1854, by N. Currier, New York, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York



409 Sleighing in Central Park, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

SLEIGHING

In city and small town with the coming of the snow appeared the sleigh. The jingling of bells on a frosty morning announced its presence. Everywhere wheels gave place to runners and the snow was soon hard packed for smooth sleighing. "On one of the wide roads on the outskirts of the town, any clear winter afternoon, you will see hundreds of sleighs dashing hither and thither, the daintiest and jauntiest of equipages, luxuriously warm and cosy by the aid of skins and blankets, drawn by spirited horses of finest temper and occupied by the male and female fashionable world. There is racing in spite of all that policemen and legislators can do; the very air tempts it, and intoxicates and makes hilarious. Sleigh after sleigh — their little bells jingling in a frenzy — whirls by you, filled with excited gentlemen half-rising from their seats, and timid ladies trying to look unconcerned; two broad lines of them one passing down on the right, the other up on the left. Thus they rush, up hill and down dale, defiant alike of the law and the danger." — George M. Towle, *American Society*, Vol. II, London, 1870.

THE SLEIGH-RIDE PARTY

A generation and more ago the folk of town and countryside found no winter diversion more appealing than the sleigh-ride party. It required no elaborate preparations for the quantity of fun it afforded. An ordinary wagon box, fastened on two sets of large runners, was filled with straw and covered with well-worn buffalo robes. To the sleigh were hitched two or four strong plodders capable of pulling through the deeper drifts. Into the wagon box clambered the young women and their escorts to find warm places in the straw beneath the robes. When all were settled the crack of the driver's whip started the big sleigh over the wind-swept road to the accompaniment of jingling bells. Before the cold had quite penetrated to ears and fingers the farmhouse ablaze with light loomed as a hospitable beacon upon the distant hill. There was a roaring wood fire to thaw the revelers out, and games and dances to lighten their spirits till the serving of refreshments warned that the time had come to start the homeward journey. Back over the low hills and drifted vales beneath the pale moon sped the sleigh, while snatches of popular songs and old favorites, lustily if not harmoniously sung, revealed the high spirits of the company. Then song and laughter and shouting ceased. The party became strangely silent in the contemplation of pleasant memories, memories to be forever associated with the rhythmic jingling of the bells.

410 Sleigh ride in New England, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, February 13, 1869

CHAPTER VII

THE DAY OF THE ATHLETIC CLUB

ORGANIZED sport in the United States is not synonymous with professional sport. To an extent scarcely equaled in any other part of the world, Americans have insisted that games and contests between amateurs shall conform to the standards set by national associations. Foremost in developing this supervision have been the athletic clubs. Products of urban development some sixty years ago, they early strove to stimulate athletic competition. For their own membership they became centers of general sport; through their annual meets they were instrumental in establishing track and field events upon a reputable basis. In a day when professional runners and pedestrians were not above reproach, the athletic clubs made it possible for a gentleman to compete in foot races and jumping contests without losing caste. Their influence, penetrating the college campus, challenged the undergraduate to participate in neglected forms of outdoor recreation, and broadened considerably the scope of intercollegiate rivalry. Under their auspices, also, the term "amateur" was more precisely defined and the necessary steps were taken to create a national association of amateurs with regulative powers.

In September 1895, the New York Athletic Club sponsored an Anglo-American track and field meet at its pretentious quarters on Travers Island. From Great Britain came a team of the ablest athletes which the London Athletic Club could assemble, while the United States was represented by national amateur title holders in their various events. The meet itself was a Roman holiday for the American contestants, their success being hailed as a great national victory. As the victors were announced, however, the intelligent observer sensed a significant aspect of our triumph. The names of Wefers, Conneff, Gray, Fitzpatrick, Bloss, Mitchell and Burke bore mute but impressive witness of the athletic contribution made by the successive generations of European emigrants to American shores.

Indeed, the teeming cities, constantly receiving multitudes from abroad, furnished the raw materials with which our athletic supremacy was wrought. With a population approaching one hundred million, drawn from every quarter of the globe, it was not difficult for the nation to find athletes who could win the laurel crown in international contests. Furthermore, Americans took their recreation seriously. There was a feeling the nation over that intensive training was a necessary preliminary to competitive endeavor. It came to permeate every phase of amateur sport from the schoolboy's races to the Olympic games. Schools and colleges, clubs and associations, all abundantly endowed with wealth, provided excellent equipment and expert coaches for young men who gave promise of unusual performance. These factors helped American representatives at the Olympic games to establish an array of records well worthy of emulation. But in the process something was lost. Spontaneous joy in participation seemed to wane. The zest of striving was eclipsed by the necessity of winning. What should have been pleasure became a business. The revival of the Greek ideal was but partially attained. Nor does it yet appear that the Olympic games, in spite of their ennobling influence on amateur sport, have completely eliminated that human weakness which sometimes prevents the victor from being truly heroic.

411 New York Athletic Club Track Team, showing William B. Curtis (center) and Henry E. Buermeyer (extreme right), courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

THE NEW YORK ATHLETIC CLUB

On a rainy September day in 1868 William B. Curtis, John C. Babcock and Henry E. Buermeyer sat in a New York rooming house discussing the zeal with which the British were turning to athletics as a means of recreation. Out of their conversation came a decision to organize an athletic club for the purpose of promoting interest in track and field events in the United States. Curtis, who had already achieved a certain notoriety as the greatest weight lifter in the country, took the initiative in the matter and under his leadership the New York Athletic Club signalized its advent by an indoor meet in the Empire Skating Rink, hastily converted for the purpose. It was a feeble beginning, but the following spring when the club members had learned more about such sports a creditable outdoor competition was held on a turf track near Central Park. Equipment was even inferior to ability, for Curtis had the only pair of spiked shoes in the city.

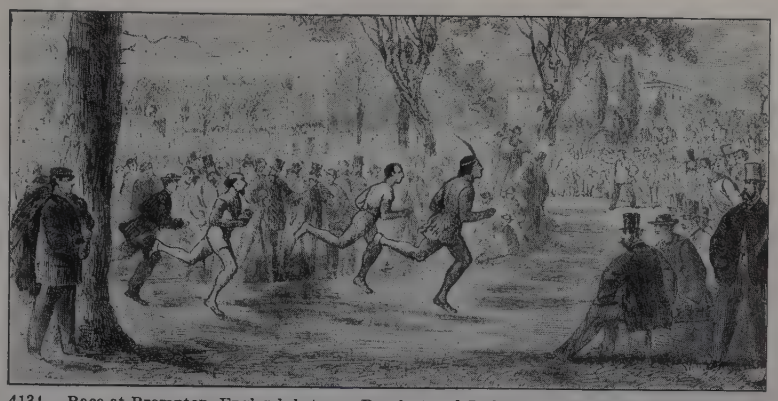
EARLY PROFESSIONAL RACES

These initial games of the New York Athletic Club were novel only in so far as they represented supervised competition between amateurs. Professional foot races and walking contests had been common during the first half of the nineteenth century. Along with horse races they enlivened the county fairs, offering a chance for goodly wagers on their outcome. Despite the unsavory character of many of the contestants, the matches between local champions or challengers from a distance drew large crowds. Of a race at the Beacon course, Hoboken, in November, 1844, the *Spirit of the Times* reported that "from the head of the quarter-stretch quite around to the drawgate, the enclosed space was so densely crammed as to render it nearly impossible to clear a space wide enough for the pedestrians to run through, though they were preceded by a dozen men on horseback. Thousands filled the stands, but it would have required the amphitheatre of Titus to have accommodated all." John Barlow, an English runner, won the first prize of seven hundred dollars by finishing the ten miles in fifty-four minutes, twenty-one seconds, while Thomas Jackson, alias the "American Deer," dropped out in the fourth mile. The following year Jackson redeemed himself by covering eleven miles in an hour's race to defeat Sheppard, the great British ten-miler.

412 Great foot race at Hoboken, November 19, 1844, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, January 11, 1845

DEERFOOT

FLEETER than Barlow or Jackson, on the basis of the records now extant, was George Seward of New Haven. He did much of his running in England, where races were apt to be more carefully supervised than in this country. In 1847 he set the mark of eleven and one half seconds for one hundred and twenty yards and of nineteen and one half seconds for two hundred yards, indicative of phenomenal speed judged even by the standard of present achievement. Ten years later a much more intriguing figure appeared upon the running tracks. Louis Bennett, known everywhere as Deerfoot, was a Seneca Indian who found none to equal him in long-distance races. Clad in breechclout, mocassins, and a colored feather in his hair, he swung along with an awkward stride and rolling gait that defied time as well as all the rules of scientific running. In England after 1861 he encountered the best ten-milers and vanquished them, but one hesitates to give full credence to some of his reported records, since officials were inclined to be lenient.



413 Race at Brompton, England, between Deerfoot and Jackson, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, October 19, 1861

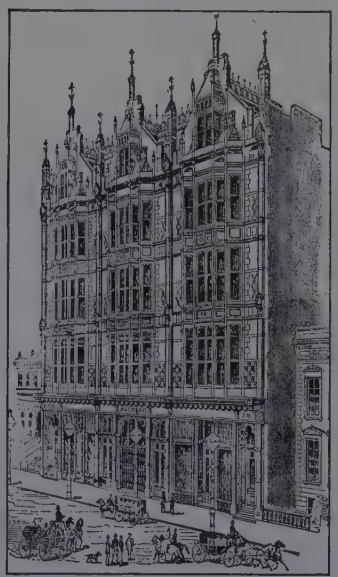
414 Games Day at Mott Haven, 1883, courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

AT MOTT HAVEN

INTO the highly commercialized activities of professional runners and pedestrians the New York Athletic Club brought the refreshing spirit of amateur sport. It also exercised a salutary influence in formulating rules, establishing standards, and keeping accurate records. In 1871 the club secured a tract of land north of the Harlem River at Mott Haven, where it constructed the first cinder track in the United States and opened its games to amateur athletes from all parts of the country. The program of events was not elaborate, including the one-hundred-yard dash, the half-mile, mile- and three-mile runs, and the three-mile walk, but the invitation to all amateurs to participate sounded a new note in athletic sports. After 1871 the spring meets became annual affairs with an expanding program of events. Games day at Mott Haven became one of the recognized features of athletics in the East.

EXPANSION

So successful was the New York Athletic Club in its various activities that it was soon imitated, chiefly by groups in the larger cities. First among them was the Staten Island, followed by the American, Manhattan and Pastime clubs, all in New York. Before 1880 Baltimore and Boston had become centers of athletic games in the East, while the Olympic Club on the Pacific Coast and the Detroit Athletic Club in the Middle West had risen to prominence. Expansion came not only in the number of clubs, but also in the membership of each organization. Prior to 1882, for example, the New York group had been small, recruited almost entirely from the ranks of amateur athletes, but within the next few years Hermann Oelrichs and William R. Travers led hundreds of wealthy business men into the club. Through the financial assistance thus secured a club house was opened at Fifty-fifth Street and Sixth Avenue, which provided model accommodations for sport and social activities.



415 The Olympic Club of San Francisco, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 19, 1890

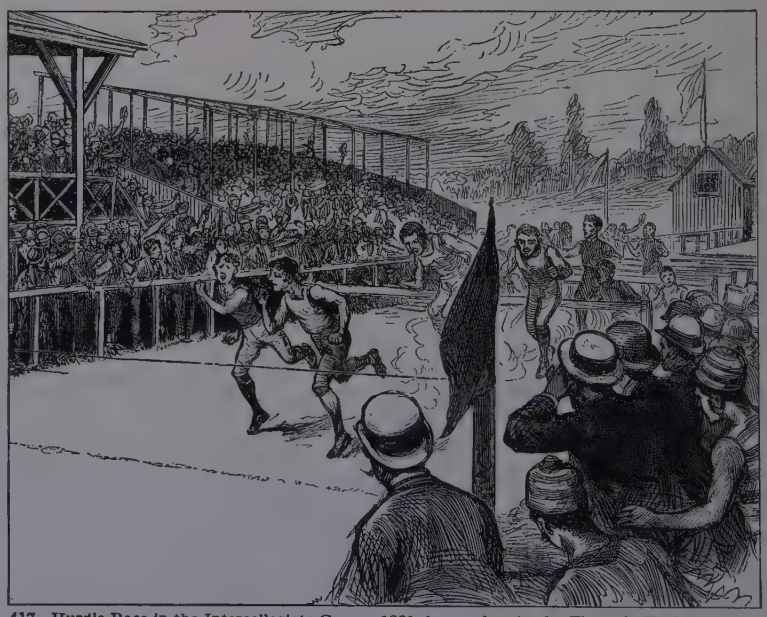
416 The Athletic Club of the Schuylkill Navy, Philadelphia, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, July 19, 1890

THE AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION

One result of the rapidly permeating influence of the athletic clubs was the demand for a national association to control track and field sports. Accordingly the National Association of Amateur Athletes of America undertook the task in 1879, when spring games were arranged under its auspices. Under the patronage of the New York Athletic Club it aspired to govern sport for a decade, encountering constant difficulty in its attempts to define an "amateur" and to enforce its decisions. In 1888 the national association foundered on the rocks of internal dissension. A few of the affiliated clubs, notably the Athletic Club of the Schuylkill Navy, the Detroit Athletic Club, and the New York Athletic Club, formed the Amateur Athletic Union. From the beginning the new organization spoke with an authority which challenged attention. It not only rigidly circumscribed the domain of the amateur but it announced that any amateur who participated in unauthorized meets thereby disqualified himself for participation in the games controlled by the Union. Since the day of its first games, held in Detroit in 1888, the Amateur Athletic Union has maintained its interdict against the "athletic-heretic."

THE INTERCOLLEGIATES

The athletic club idea found support in the colleges during the 'seventies. Such track and field contests as existed before that time grew out of the spontaneous interclass combat on the campus, or supplemented the intercollegiate regatta as a manifestation of school rivalry. The inspiration to organize probably came from many sources. For twenty years athletic contests had been sponsored by clubs at the English universities; the games at Mott Haven were open to college students; there was resentment over the caricatures of undergraduates as hollow-chested, consumptive creatures, "all brains and no physique." Whatever the motivating influence the colleges turned to athletics with such abandon that the cartoonists soon revised their stereotype to that of a muscular paragon with no intelligence. The first intercollegiate track and field contests were held in 1874 when a program of five events — 100 yards dash, 120 yards hurdle race, the mile and three-mile runs and the seven-mile walk — served as a sort of appetizer for the rowing regatta at Saratoga. Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, Columbia, Pennsylvania, Williams, Amherst, Wesleyan and Union competed in ten events the next year, a meet so successful that it resulted in the formation of the Intercollegiate Association of Amateur Athletes of America. Under the new auspices the first championship was won in 1876 by Princeton with four firsts. The long campaign to establish records had begun.

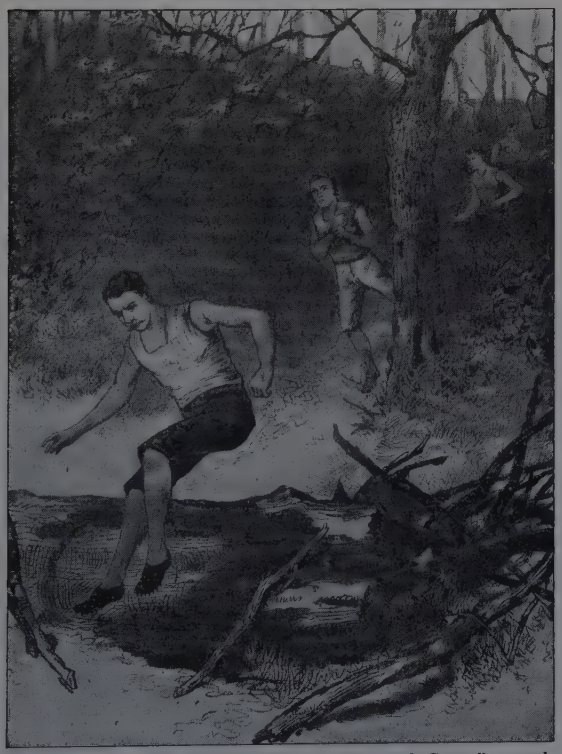


417 Hurdle Race in the Intercollegiate Games, 1881, from a drawing by Thure de Thulstrup in *Harper's Weekly*, June 18, 1881

BERKELEY OVAL

418 The start for the hundred yards race at the intercollegiate games, May 31, 1890, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly*, June 14, 1890

During the early years of the Intercollegiates the program of events was changed to place emphasis upon the sprints rather than the endurance races. As interest waned in the three and seven miles runs and the seven miles walk, the 100 yards and 220 yards dashes and the quarter-mile steadily grew in popular favor. Events long since abandoned found a place in the college meets. The hop, step and jump attracted many competitors, while the three-legged race and wheel-barrow race were exciting features on western tracks. At Harvard the potato race enjoyed a brief day of glory. Gradually, however, the local athletic associations accepted the methods and events recognized in the Intercollegiates, which in the period prior to 1890 were chiefly supported by the eastern colleges. At Saratoga, Mott Haven, and later at Berkeley Oval high above the Harlem River, records fell before the attacks of successive generations of athletes. He who was hailed as the "champion of all time" lived to see the title awarded to many who surpassed his best performance in the track or field events.



419 Cross-country race with Carter leading and Conneff second, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, May 12, 1888

"HARE AND HOUNDS"

Although the endurance races were losing their place on the track meet program, long distance running did not entirely disappear. It found a new expression in the game of "Hare and Hounds," for generations the delight of British schoolboys in the great public schools. Introduced to Americans by William S. Vosburgh, later famous in the development of horse racing, this form of cross-country running was sponsored by the Westchester Hare and Hounds in 1878. The first chase over hill and dale on Thanksgiving Day of that year appealed to the newspaper scribes. They gave it columns of space. It caught the imagination of the cartoonists, who promptly exploited the comic and picturesque in the new sport. Such publicity helped. Within a few years there were a number of clubs in the neighborhood of New York and in 1883 the New York Athletic Club approved the "paper chasers." Sturdy runners followed the trails fixed by the "hares" or traveled cross country along measured courses in individual and team competition. In 1887 the National Cross-Country Association was formed, its first race being won by the Suburban Harriers under the leadership of E. C. Carter, an English distance runner, who had recently arrived in the country.

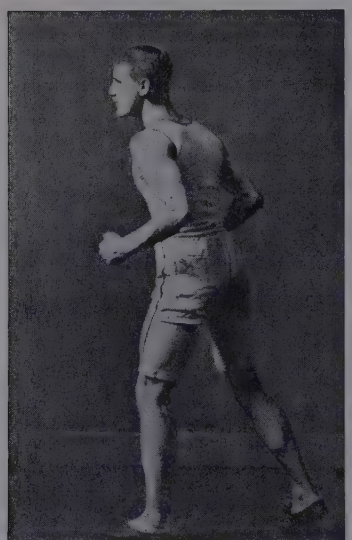
420 Suburban Harriers' Champion Team, 1887, from a photograph in *Outing*, March 1894

ACROSS COUNTRY

THERE were a number of amateur teams of harriers in the country before the colleges became interested in the paper chase. At Harvard, where Charles Brandt in 1887 had stressed the merits of "hare and hounds," cross-country running became part of the training prescribed for track men. Cornell, Pennsylvania and the College of the City of New York were the pioneers who staged the first intercollegiate meet in 1890. At Cornell, expecially, the harriers received more than ordinary attention. Walter C. Yeatman and Arthur J. Sweet were enthusiastic advocates of a sport which required not only speed and endurance but also ability to cope with unexpected obstacles on the spur of the moment. Some of their enthusiasm was transfused into the student body, making Cornell a leader in the organization of the Intercollegiate Cross-Country Association in 1899. Its first championship race was won by Cornell, though Cregan of Princeton, who covered a little over six miles in $34{:}05\frac{2}{5}$, earned high individual honors. Collegiate competition has steadily increased since the formation of the national association, though the impetus of an early start has made the eastern college the true home of cross-country running.

EARLY SPECIALISTS IN THE SPRINTS

THAT tendency toward specialization so noticeable in our economic development has its counterpart in the sport life of the nation. While American athletes have not entirely neglected "all-around" proficiency, their greatest interest has not been in pentathlon and decathlon competitions. Emphasis has rather been placed upon attaining perfection in one or two events. In this process of specialized effort the sprinters have held high rank, making the short distance dashes premier events on every program. In 1878 W. C. Wilmer, wearing the emblem of the Short Hills (N. J.) Athletic Club, ran the hundred in ten seconds. A few years later Evert J. Wendell of Harvard equaled that mark in the Intercollegiates. The decade of the 'eighties was marked by a procession of college sprinters on the cinder track. From Yale came H. S. Brooks, Jr., whose speciality was the 220 yards dash and the quarter-mile, and Sherill who won the hundred four years in succession at Mott Haven. Harvard gloried in the speed of Wendell Baker, while Princeton shared in the victories of Luther H. Cary, who won the 200 yards dash in 1891 and held the record for five years. Among the athletic club sprinters the most notable were Westing of the New York A. C. and John Owen, Jr., of the Detroit association. Always a ten-second man, Owen broke the record for the hundred in 1890 by reaching the tape in $9\frac{4}{5}$ seconds, just ahead of Luther Cary, the fastest man in the colleges at that time. His achievement was not dimmed by the fact that several professional runners had already demonstrated that it could be done.



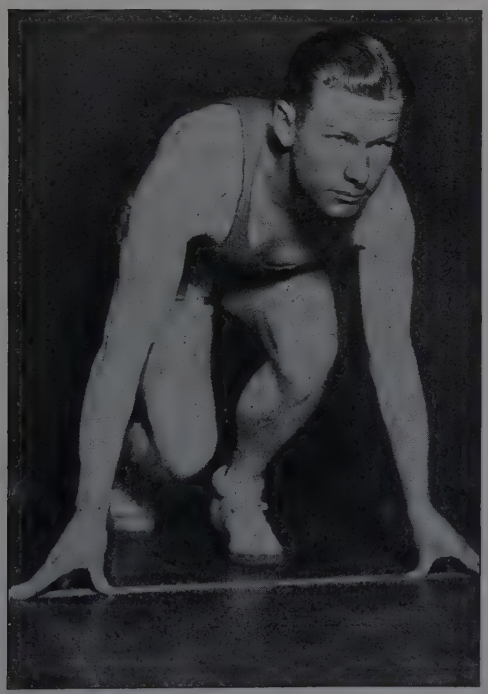
421 Evert Jansen Wendell, from a photograph in the Wendell Collection, Harvard College Library

422 John Owen, Jr., from a photograph, courtesy of the Detroit Athletic Club

FROM WEFERS TO PADDOCK

423 New York Athletic Club World's Record Relay Team, 1897, showing Bernard J. Wefers (third from left), courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

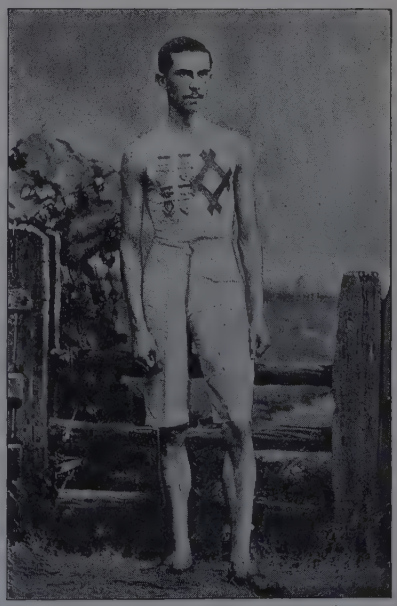
The international track and field meet sponsored by the New York Athletic Club on September 21, 1895, was a day of triumph for this country. Every event was won by an American amateur against the best performers that England could produce. In the sprints the laurel wreath went to Bernard J. Wefers, a Boston lad, then studying at Georgetown. He equaled Owen's feat in the hundred and ran the two-twenty in $21\frac{1}{5}$ seconds, establishing a new world's record which stood for a quarter of a century. When Wefers left Georgetown, another student, Arthur J. Duffey, carried on the tradition of speed. He reached the peak of his career in 1902 when he flashed down the 100 yards straightaway in $9\frac{3}{5}$ seconds. As a penalty for violations of the amateur rule his name was stricken from the records. Since his day the tracks have been crowded with great sprinters, men like Schick of Harvard, Ramsdell of Pennsylvania and Craig of Michigan. But few of them have equaled Duffey's performance. In 1906 D. J. Kelly placed Duffey's mark once more on the amateur records, while in 1914 H. P. Drew, the negro athlete from the University of Southern California, joined him. Twelve years later Charles Paddock lowered the time by one-tenth of a second. He had previously set the mark for the 220 yards dash at $20\frac{4}{5}$ seconds, where it still remains (1929).



424 Charles Paddock, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

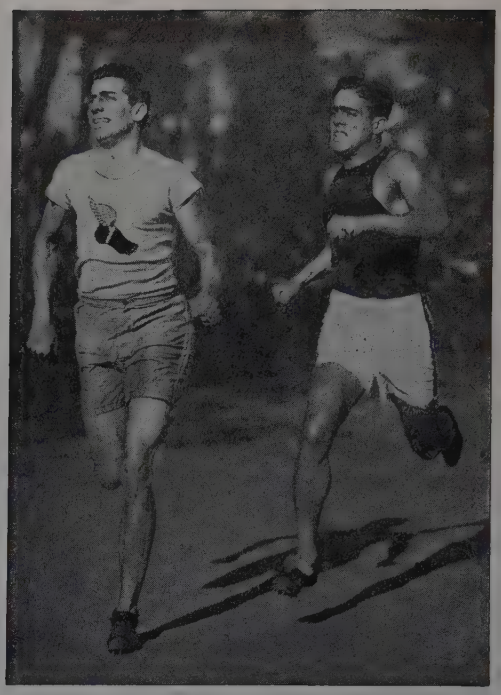
"LON" MYERS

No athlete ever sped along the cinder path with greater ease than Lawrence E. Myers. Born in Richmond, Virginia, in 1858 he turned to outdoor exercise as a means of fighting ill health. Under the tutelage of John Fraser, celebrated trainer, he prepared for the New York Athletic Club games in 1878, when he celebrated his first competition by winning the quarter-mile handicap. For the next seven years he was generally invincible in the middle distances, setting marks in the 440 and 880 yards dashes. Before he turned professional in 1886 he won fourteen American championships, ten Canadian and three English. Of abnormal build he seemed to be all slender legs when he started down the track at the crack of the gun. Though he was constantly handicapped by his health, he was enormously prodigal of his strength, a fact which forced him to lay aside the spiked shoes before age had slowed his pace.



425 Lawrence E. Myers, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

426 Melvin Sheppard, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York



427 Homer Baker and James E. Meredith (second), from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE MEN OF THE MIDDLE DISTANCES

After the passing of "Lon" Myers the best middle distance runners were recruited from the ranks of college athletes. Among the quarter-milers Walter Dohm of the New York Athletic Club created something of a sensation by setting a mark of 50 seconds in 1890, but his record was quickly lowered by Wendell Baker of Harvard and Thomas E. Burke of Boston University, who traveled the distance in $48\frac{4}{5}$ seconds on a sodden, sticky track. At Columbia the speed of Maxwell W. Long carried him over a quarter-mile straightaway in forty-seven seconds in 1900. Half-milers from the colleges also broke into the championship class. From 1894 to 1897 C. H. Kilpatrick of Union encountered little competition at that distance. His best time was 1 minute, $55\frac{2}{5}$ seconds, made in the international meet of 1895. For ten years there was none to equal his speed. After 1906 public attention was focussed for a decade upon two of the greatest half-milers ever seen on American tracks, Melvin W. Sheppard and James E. Meredith. Sheppard, wearing the insignia of the Irish American Athletic Club, took the national championship in the half-mile in 1906, 1907, 1908 and again in 1911 and 1912. He did not meet his conqueror until the Olympic games of 1912, when he was defeated in the 800 metres race by Meredith, then preparing for college at Mercersburg Academy. The promise of that early victory was fulfilled in Meredith's later career. In 1914 he won the intercollegiate championship in the half-mile and the following year ran the quarter-mile in the phenomenal time of forty-seven seconds with the wind at his back. In April 1916 he set the mark of 1 minute, $52\frac{1}{5}$ seconds, for the half-mile at Philadelphia and two weeks later at Cambridge, Massachusetts, covered 440 yards in $47\frac{2}{5}$ seconds for a national record on the curved track. Both of these marks, along with that of Sheppard for 600 yards, were still standing on the books of the Amateur Athletic Union in 1928.

428 Meredith Winning Medley Relay, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE MILE RUNNERS

429 Dead Heat between N. S. Taber of Brown and John Paul Jones of Cornell at the Intercollegiate Races, 1912, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE appeal of the distance races, except the cross-country runs, has declined with the passing of the years. It was not uncommon for such professionals as Thomas Jackson and "Deerfoot" to participate in ten-mile marathons, but the early amateur games soon dropped such endurance tests. Even the one-mile race found fewer contestants among college youth and other amateurs than the shorter dashes. Speed had a greater appeal. Proportionately fewer of the great milers have come from the colleges than in the case of the sprints and middle distance champions. One of the first amateurs to circle a mile in less than 4:40 was Harry Fredericks of the Manhattan Athletic Club. For a number of years after 1880 he held the national title. Then two Englishmen, E. C. Carter and Thomas P. Conneff, both of them excellent cross-country runners, shared honors until 1895 when Conneff was credited with a mile at Travers Island in 4 minutes, $15\frac{3}{5}$ seconds. At the close of the century J. F. Cregan of Princeton won the national championship in four successive years but none of his races was timed as low as Conneff's record. Interest in the mile run reached a high point after 1910, when a quartette of remarkable performers pressed close on each other's heels in outdoor and indoor competition. In 1911 A. R. Kiviat of the Irish-American Athletic Club won the national championships, while John Paul Jones of Cornell set a new record in the Intercollegiates by going the distance in 4 minutes, $15\frac{2}{5}$ seconds. In 1913 N. S. Taber, running for the Boston Athletic Association, interrupted Kiviat's series of victories in the national championship and two years later he established a record of 4 minutes, $15\frac{3}{5}$ seconds for the distance. In 1915, also, J. W. Ray of Chicago began his long career. For ten years he continued as a miler of the first rank, revealing a stamina which few of his predecessors had possessed. On March 17, 1925, running on an indoor track he equaled Paavo Nurmi's world record of 4 minutes, 12 seconds for the mile. Lloyd Hahn and Ray Conger have proved worthy successors of the veteran in recent contests on the cinder and indoor tracks.

430 J. W. Ray, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

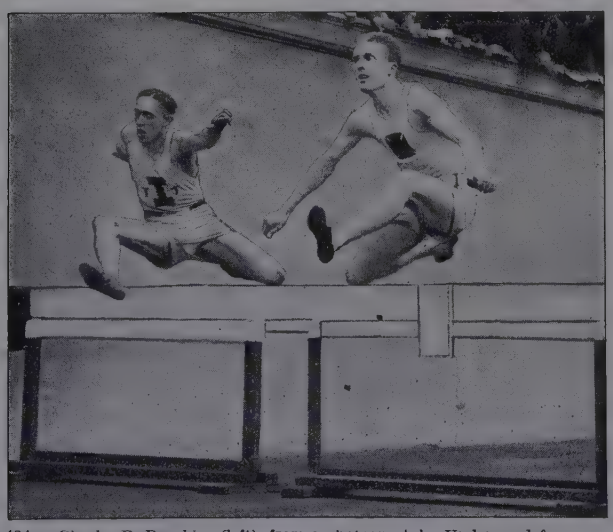
431 Abel Kiviat, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

432 A. A. Jordan, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

OVER THE HURDLES

In no track event has the development in form with corresponding improvement in time been more pronounced than in the hurdles. Of the two forms now common in amateur competition the 120 yards with high hurdles is the older, having been a part of the program at the first intercollegiate meet in 1874. A decade later the 220 yards with low hurdles, requiring slightly less skill in taking the jumps, had become a favorite race with contestants and spectators. Both are associated to this day with the name of Alvin C. Kraenzlein of the University of Pennsylvania, whose superiority over his greatest rivals was unmistakable. Before his time there had been able performers in the collegiate and athletic club ranks. In the early 'nineties, after A. A. Jordan of the New York Athletic Club and A. F. Copland of the Manhattan Athletic Club had shown the way, Harding of Columbia, Ducharme of Detroit, Puffer of New York, Williams of Yale, and Chase of Dartmouth were all sixteen-seconds men in the high hurdles, while J. P. Lee and J. L. Bremer, Jr., of Harvard ran the low hurdles in twenty-five seconds. But these marks fell before the smooth stride of Kraenzlein. Tall, slim, with slender legs, he was one of the first to take the obstacles as they came without deviating from his natural stride. His victories in 1897, 1898 and 1899 were models of form as well as speed, marking him as an outstanding athlete in intercollegiate competition. His championship was the beginning of a distinctly new school of hurdles in this century. His successors strove to imitate the ease of his movements, but few could reproduce his speed over the obstacles. For eighteen years, even with such contestants as A. B. Shaw of Chicago and Forrest Smithson of Oregon, no one surpassed Kraenzlein's record, made in 1898, of $15\frac{1}{5}$ seconds in high hurdles, though F. C. Garrels of Michigan equaled it. Then in 1916, F. S. Murray of Leland Stanford lowered the time, only to have his record eclipsed four years later by the remarkable sprinting of Earl J. Thomson of Dartmouth, who topped the high hurdles in $14\frac{2}{5}$ seconds. Kraenzlein's best performance in the low hurdles was challenged by Garrels of Michigan in 1907 and by Murray of Leland Stanford in 1916, but it stood until 1924 when C. R. Brookins of the University of Iowa showed something of the great Pennsylvanian's form in setting a mark of twenty-three seconds for the straightaway and $23\frac{4}{5}$ seconds for the distance around a turn. Though his records no longer stand, the fame of Kraenzlein is secure.

433 Alvin Kraenzlein, from a photograph, courtesy of the University of Pennsylvania

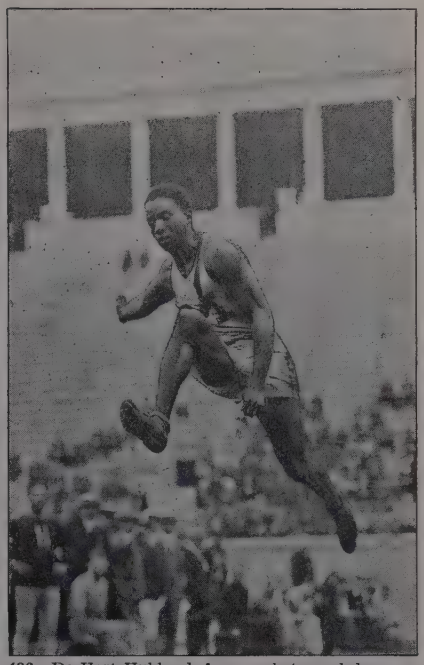


434 Charles R. Brookins (left), from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

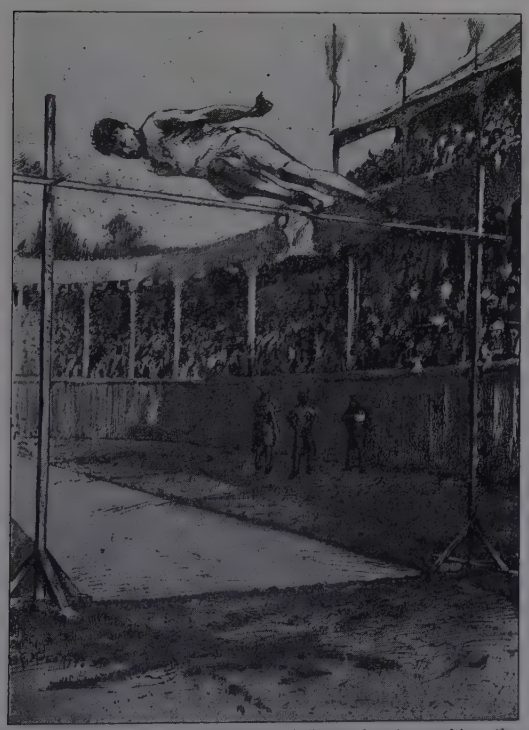
435 Frank J. Kilpatrick, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

THE RUNNING BROAD JUMP

Though the running broad jump was not listed on the program of the first organized track meet in this country, it was a form of sport in England and America before the nineteenth century. Its popularity with American athletes has been due to the fact that specialists in the sprints, hurdles, and other events discovered how easily it was combined with their own specialty. In the 'seventies the New York Athletic Club regarded Frank J. Kilpatrick's leap of 19 feet $6\frac{3}{4}$ inches as a performance worthy of note. Ten years later, however, E. B. Bloss of Harvard, Victor Mapes of Columbia, and L. P. Sheldon of Yale were clearing more than twenty-two feet in their leaps. As in the hurdles, so in the broad jump Kraenzlein set a new standard of excellence. At the intercollegiate games in 1900 he broke the record on his first attempt, and in his third trial jumped 24 feet, $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches to set a new world's record. But this time he was not without competition worthy of his mettle. Later in the same year, his great rival, Meyer Prinstein of Syracuse, increased the distance by what was then considered a phenomenal leap of 24 feet, $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches. For a quarter of a century Prinstein's name led all the rest, though many aspiring to championship honors attempted the long jump only to fall short of the mark. Then in 1925 De Hart Hubbard of Michigan went more than a foot beyond any of his predecessors, his championship effort at Chicago carrying him over 25 feet, $10\frac{7}{8}$ inches of ground.



436 De Hart Hubbard, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



437 W. Byrd Page, University of Pennsylvania, making the World's Record of six feet, four inches, from a drawing by F. Mulertto in *Outing*, August 1891

W. BYRD PAGE

In the spring of 1887 a young man who stood less than five feet seven inches in his track shoes ran easily up to a bar suspended six feet, one-quarter inch above the ground and with an accurately gauged spring threw his body over it. The young man was W. Byrd Page of the University of Pennsylvania, the first to clear more than six feet in the running high jump. Not content with this initial distinction, he continued to improve his method of jumping until in 1891 he set the world's record at six feet, four inches. Like Kraenzlein in the hurdles, Page established a definite form in the high jump which was accepted with minor variations by his successors. His brilliant performance, which stood unequaled until the international games of 1895, did much to place his special event among the important ones at all track and field meets.

438 Malcolm Ford, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

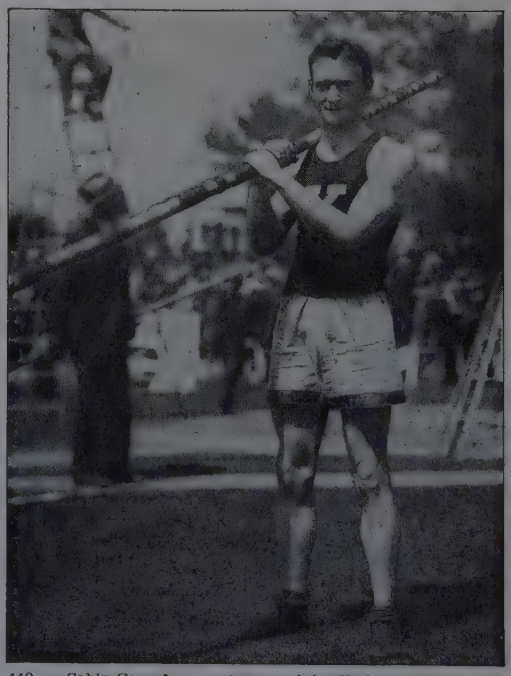
439 Harold M. Osborn clearing the bar in the running high jump, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

VERSATILE JUMPERS

MANY who have excelled in the high and broad jumps belong to the class of all-around athletes rather than to a select group of specialists in one event. Malcolm W. Ford, who was consistently successful in the sprints, was in the first ranks of the broad jumpers in the 'eighties. In 1904 Ray C. Ewry, equally competent in the standing high and broad jumps, set the mark of 11 feet, $4\frac{7}{8}$ inches, in the latter. Between 1909 and 1915 Platt Adams of the New York Athletic Club displayed great versatility by winning championships in the high and broad jumps, in the hop, skip and jump, and the pole vault for distance. The javelin throw and running broad jump were also important in his repertoire. While Ewry's record still stands, Harold M. Osborn of Urbana, Illinois, has carried the running high jump beyond all previous marks, clearing 6 feet, $8\frac{1}{4}$ inches. In 1925 Osborn equaled the world's record of 5 feet, $5\frac{3}{4}$ inches for the standing high jump made by Leo Goehring in 1913.

THE POLE VAULT

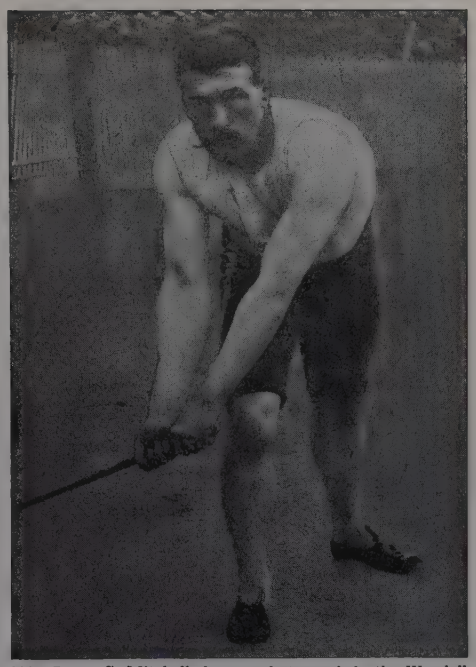
FROM the spectator's standpoint few of the track and field events are more spectacular than the pole vault. In it the careful calculation of the high jumper must be combined with skill in handling the long pole and a nice coördination of speed and strength. It was evidently otherwise in the early days of the sport, for one finds that in the 'seventies of the last century Pryor of Columbia earned the intercollegiate title with a mark of seven feet four inches. As the English method of gripping and manipulating the pole was learned by American contestants, the performance steadily improved. In 1883 Toler of Pennsylvania topped ten feet, while H. H. Baxter a few years later cleared the bar at eleven feet, five inches, in some of the best vaulting ever seen in this country. The ease and grace with which he accomplished his feat has been duplicated by few, though the record has steadily been carried upward by men like Clapp and McLanahan of Yale and Barnes of California. Finally in 1927 Sabin Carr of Yale established the mark of fourteen feet, almost twice the height attained in the period before 1880.



440 Sabin Carr, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

HANDLING THE WEIGHTS

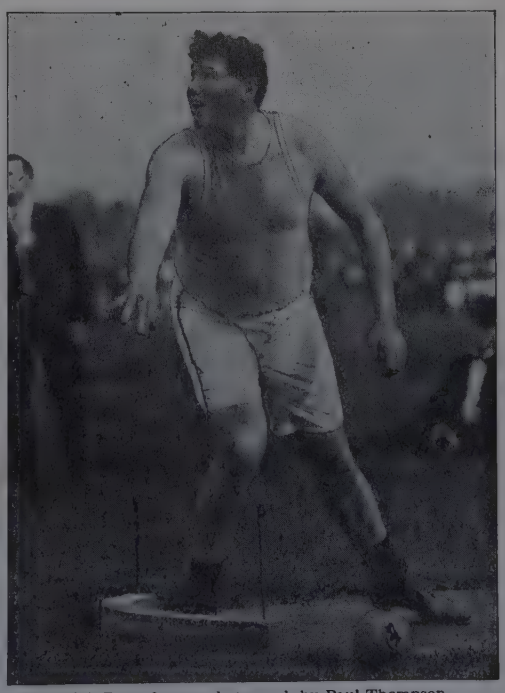
THERE is something prosaic yet inspiring about contests in handling the weights. Brawn has ever been honored among our people. In frontier days it was tested through the medium of wrestling, free-for-all fights, and gouging matches, which slowly gave place to less combative competition. Weight-lifting, hammer-throwing, and putting the shot became accepted methods of measuring strength and skill. The founder of the New York Athletic Club, "Father Bill" Curtis, was a man of brawn, proficient in lifting extraordinary weights and an adept at hurling the sixteen-pound hammer. In his day the hammer was an iron ball with a short wooden handle, which the contestant was compelled to throw from within a seven-foot circle. After 1880 a metamorphosis took place. The head of iron was replaced by one of lead and the wooden handle gave way to thin wires with double grip. The thrower was also freed from earlier restrictions, being permitted to make a double turn preparatory to hurling the weight. In the colleges DeWitt of Princeton and Coxe and Hickok of Yale lengthened the record to more than one hundred and fifty-two feet before 1895. In the national championships the Irish seemed to have a monopoly. Prior to 1900 James S. Mitchell and J. J. Flanagan divided honors, while thirteen years later P. J. Ryan established the national record at 189 feet, $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches.



441 James S. Mitchell, from a photograph in the Wendell Collection, Harvard College Library

442 John Flanagan throwing the hammer, from a photograph in *Leslie's Weekly*, May 21, 1896

In handling the 56-pound weight Mitchell was more successful than with the hammer. Between 1890 and 1905 he won the national championship nine times. In 1907 he failed to outthrow John J. Flanagan to whom he had previously yielded the palm in the hammer throw. Four years later the world's record throw was made by another Irishman, when Matt McGrath of New York hurled the weight 40 feet, $6\frac{3}{8}$ inches. Among the experts with the sixteen-pound shot two names are pre-eminent. For eight consecutive years after 1886 George R. Gray set a standard of performance which collegians like Larkin and Janeway of Princeton and Coxe and Hickok of Yale vainly tried to equal. Gray's put of 1893 carried forty-seven feet, a distance unsurpassed until Ralph Rose appeared at the University of Michigan. The giant Californian could put the shot with either hand, some of his left-handed heaves equaling the best distances of his competitors. In 1928 John Kuck surpassed Rose's best distance by putting the shot 52 feet, $\frac{3}{4}$ inches.



443 Ralph Rose, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

444 The Discus Thrower, from a sculpture by R. Tait McKenzie, at Stockholm, Sweden. Photograph, courtesy of the artist

THE DISCUS AND THE JAVELIN

More colorful than the other weight events are the throwing of the discus and the hurling of the javelin. Both were features of the pentathlon in the ancient Olympic games. Included in the program of the modern Olympics at Athens in 1896, they became important field events in several European countries, the Scandinavian performers easily surpassing all competitors. Despite the fact that Robert Garret of Princeton won the discus throw for the American team at the first Olympic competition, Americans have not shown the same ability with the eight-inch disc as with the shot and the hammer. For several years after 1908 Martin Sheridan of Chicago was preëminent, his throws covering better than 142 feet, 10 inches. By successive champions the distance was increased until Charles Houser established a record of 158 feet, $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches, in 1926. Hurling the javelin did not interest American athletes prior to 1909. In that year Ralph Rose experimented with the metal-tipped lance, but his best efforts were surpassed by Gish of Seattle who won the American title with a heave of 144 feet. Although considerable progress in mastering the art has been shown by our athletes in the last twenty years, neither Creth Hines of Chicago nor Charles Eaton of Los Angeles has shown the proficiency which enabled Penttila of Finland to set the world's record at 229 feet, $3\frac{1}{8}$ inches in 1927.

445 Charles Eaton, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

LONG DISTANCE RACES

The interest of American athletes and spectators in distance running has declined with the passing decades. Despite occasional revivals of enthusiasm, such as the establishment of the twenty-five mile marathon by the Knickerbocker Athletic Club in 1897, or the visit of Paavo Nurmi almost thirty years later, the men who cover five miles and beyond in their competitive efforts have received less attention than any other group of runners. The list of champions itself reveals a lack of proficiency on the part of American athletes which may well be due to perference for the sprints and middle distances. On the honor roll are many who came across the Atlantic to conquer in our meets — E. C. Carter, the English runner, Thomas Conneff, the little Irish champion, and at a later date those two great Finns, Kolehmainen and Ritola. In 1913 Kolehmainen, circling the laps of indoor tracks, set the American amateur record for every distance from five to ten miles. A dozen years later his fellow countryman, Ritola, lowered the five-mile time to 24 minutes, $21\frac{4}{5}$ seconds. Not always, however, has the palm gone to foreigners. The work of William D. Day in the five miles, of John J. McDermott in the twenty-five mile event, and of M. J. Ryan in the Boston Marathon deserve equal recognition with the triumphs of Sheppard, Meredith, Paddock and Borah.

446 Kolehmainen winning a ten-mile championship at New Brunswick, N. J., from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

HEEL AND TOE WALKING

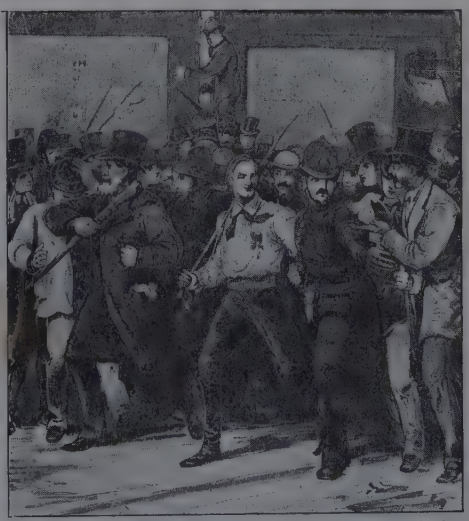
HEEL and toe walking races, at distances varying from one to seven miles, were featured on the earliest programs of the athletic club's outdoor and indoor games. The organization of the amateur meets coincided with the enormous popularity of long distance pedestrianism among professionals. Yet college athletes and other amateurs manifested comparatively little interest in the walking race. Though the one-mile event remained on the program of the intercollegiate meet until 1901, few trained themselves in the mechanics of the heel and toe method of going. In contrast with the swift flight of the sprints and the graceful topping of the hurdles, there was something unnatural, even ludicrous, about the walking race. Many who tried it concluded that they "were straining every nerve and muscle to get ahead, but had entered into an insane compact not to employ the natural and obvious means of doing so." They soon tired of the rigid regimen which was supposed to lead to proficiency.

447 Third long distance championship match between Rowell, Ennis and Harriman at Gilmore's Garden, March 10, 1869, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, March 29, 1879

EDWARD PAYSON WESTON, 1839–1929

THOUGH contestants were not numerous, the long-distance walking matches appealed to a generation which did not know the excitement of the six-day bike races. In the development of popular interest Edward Payson Weston played a major rôle. He was not the first to demonstrate remarkable endurance over country roads or around the race track. In the year of Weston's birth, Thomas Elworth was tramping with a peddler's pack over the Nova Scotian countryside in preparation for pedestrian feats. Three years later he appeared at Cambridge Park Trotting Course, near Boston, and walked one mile each hour for a period of one thousand hours, finishing "before an immense concourse of spectators." Weston's initial effort grew out of his wager during the presidential campaign of 1860 that if Lincoln were elected, he would walk from Boston to Washington, a distance of four hundred and seventy-eight miles, in ten consecutive days. He fulfilled his agreement in the spring of the following year, reaching the Capitol just as the inauguration ceremonies were concluded. From that time Weston found his pedestrian exhibitions a ready source of revenue. In 1867 he won ten thousand dollars by walking from Portland, Maine, to Chicago in twenty-six days. Though many surpassed him in speed, few equaled his remarkable endurance. Others established records on level indoor tracks; Weston accomplished his greatest feats on the country roads of England and the United States. After forty years of gruelling competition, he celebrated his seventieth birthday in 1909 by a transcontinental jaunt from New York to San Francisco in a little over one hundred days. Though his exhibitions did not raise up a host of skilled pedestrians they encouraged many Americans to find the benefit and pleasure of long walks in the open.

448 Edward Payson Weston, from a drawing in *The Illustrated Sporting and Dramatic News*, London, February 19, 1876



449 Final lap of Weston's walk of four hundred and fifty miles, from a drawing by W. J. Morgan in *The Illustrated Sporting and Dramatic News*, March 18, 1876

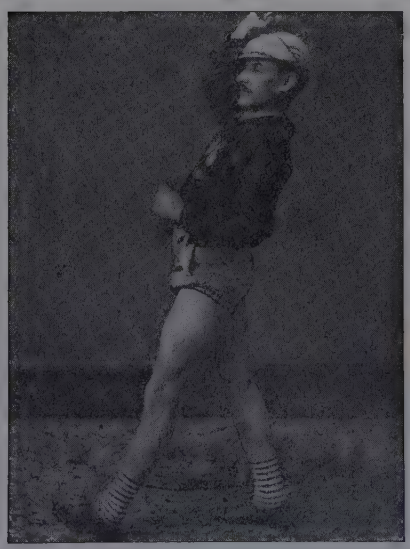
450 Match between Daniel O'Leary and John Hughes in Gilmore's Garden, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly*, October 19, 1878

THE ASTLEY BELT

During the decade following 1870 the sports journals in this country and England were filled with the exploits of professional pedestrians, the quarrels of promoters, and the tribulations of those who tried to referee the heel-and-toe contests. Weston was establishing a record for six days' walking at Gilmore's Garden in New York; irate officials were denouncing contestants who refused to abide by the rules; Lulu Loomer, clad in black silk tunic and sky blue hose, was fulfilling her boast that she could walk three thousand quarter-miles in three thousand quarter-hours. Pedestrian records were in confusion. In 1878 Sir John Astley, member of Parliament and prominent British sportsman, strove to restore a semblance of order by offering a five hundred pound purse and a championship belt to the winner of a six days' test, go-as-you-please. Daniel O'Leary of Chicago, who had out-walked Weston the previous year, won the first competition for the Astley belt, which thereafter became the symbol of pedestrian proficiency on both sides of the Atlantic. For a decade the endurance contests drew huge crowds to Islington or Madison Square Garden, where in an atmosphere of cheap tobacco and cheaper speech the weary racers grimly dragged themselves around the track to earn the cash prize and fatten the purses of the promoters. Not until the bicycle races had caught the public's fancy did the "go-as-you-please" artists abandon their means of livelihood.

AMATEUR WALKING CONTESTS

Far different from the professional performances were the walking races staged under the auspices of the amateur associations. The heel-and-toe method was more carefully enforced, and the contests were generally for one mile or three miles. At the former distance Borcherling of Princeton, Thrace of Yale and Fetterman of Pennsylvania made creditable records, but the authorities of the intercollegiate association decided to abandon the event in 1901 because of the difficulty experienced by officials in determining when a walk becomes a run. Prior to 1900 Daniel Stern, E. C. Holske and J. P. Murray in Amateur Athletic Union contests had lowered the mark for the mile to 6 minutes, 29$\frac{3}{5}$ seconds, where it stood until 1911 when G. H. Goulding, the Canadian pedestrian, established a record of 6 minutes, 28 seconds. In the distances beyond the mile S. Liebgold was a perennial champion before his retirement in 1911, while William Plant has circled miles of track to establish records in the two- and fifteen-mile events.



451 E. C. Holske, from a photograph in the Wendell Collection, Harvard University Library

452 Daniel Stern, from a photograph in the Wendell Collection, Harvard University Library

453 Start of the two-mile run, University of Pennsylvania Relays, 1926, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE PENNSYLVANIA RELAYS

PROBABLY no single event in the development of track and field sports has been more significant than the introduction of relay races. In 1895, the year that American athletes humbled the representatives of Oxford and Cambridge at Travers Island, the University of Pennsylvania dedicated its new athletic grounds at Franklin Field with the first relay carnival ever held in the country. It was not an elaborate meet, Harvard and Pennsylvania being the only contestants of importance in the few events of the afternoon, yet the relay races, substituting coöperative effort of teams for individual competition, made an instantaneous appeal. Growth was rapid. Events were constantly added at Franklin Field. In 1897 the two-mile and four-mile races were run as relays. With the one-mile relay they formed a trio of interesting contests for many years. Then, in 1915, the sprint medley was added to the program, followed the next year by the distance medley, both popular with the spectators. Ten years later, when the decathlon replaced the pentathlon as a feature for versatile athletes, the Pennsylvania meet had grown into a gigantic contest between three thousand athletes representing more than five hundred universities, colleges and secondary schools. Seventy thousand crowded the big stadium to witness the finals, adding all the panoply of a colorful spectacle to the memorable performances on track and field. There was nothing drab or uninteresting about the meet at Philadelphia. It became the model for scores of relay carnivals important in the sectional competitions throughout the country. Perhaps the greatest of these imitators is the Drake relays, generally regarded as the classic track and field meet of the Middle West. Of its peculiar contribution that keen commentator on modern athletics, Lawrence Perry, writes: "There is something fine in the way of comradeship about the Drake event that is not in evidence at Franklin Field. It applies both to coach and competitor. There is an impression of solidarity as though this were a huge family affair and color is rampant. . . . The sport of track, at least in these Drake relays, glories in a riot of colorful pageantry and animation in the stands, as on the field, which is duplicated nowhere in this country."

454 Champion University of Pennsylvania Relay team of 1927, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

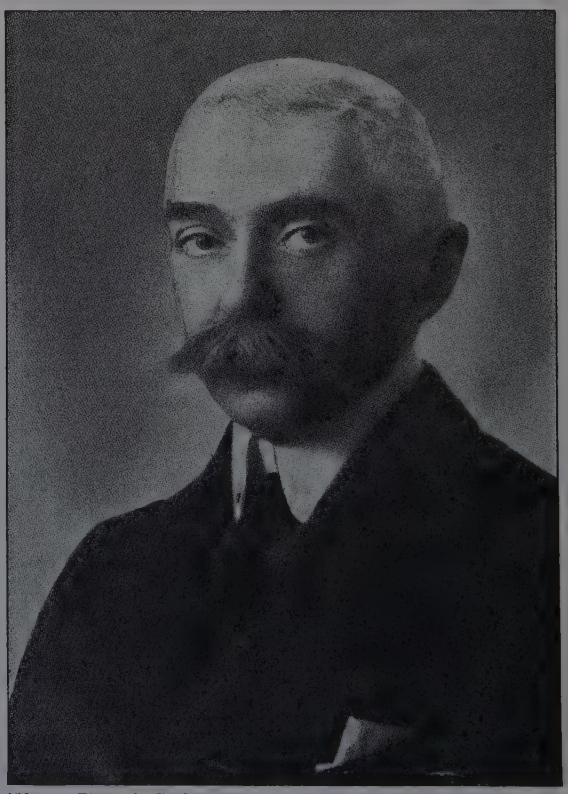
455 From the plaque *The Joy of Effort* by R. Tait McKenzie in the Stadium at Stockholm, courtesy of the artist

THE OLYMPIC IDEA

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century the influence of the athletic club spread rapidly into every section of the nation. It was not confined to urban centers where wealthy societies maintained sumptuous quarters for social as well as athletic activities. In smaller towns there were local agencies — the Young Men's Christian Association, the *turnverein*, the public school, or the college — fulfilling the function of organizing athletic games and contests as the outlet for the physical energies of a people increasingly committed to a sedentary life. It was clear that the city dweller had been stirred to actual participation in a wide variety of sports. There remained the question of whether that participation was on the highest possible plane. To counteract the low ambition and small passions which threatened to dominate athletic competition recourse was had to the spirit of the Greek games before excesses had corrupted ancient athleticism. As vulgar competition had once been transformed and sanctified at Olympia, so it was hoped that the modern Olympic idea would purify sport, exalt fair play and make the *contest* quite as much as the *victory* the joy of the athlete.

PIERRE DE COUBERTIN

In both England and the United States there had been suggestions of a revival of the ancient Greek games, but it was a Frenchman in whom the idea became incarnate. Pierre de Coubertin, depressed by the humiliation of his country in the Franco-Prussian War, dreamed of the day when France should triumph not on the field of battle but in the arena of out-of-door sports. For several years after 1871 he traveled in England and America studying the methods and organization of athletic competition. Returning to his native land, he sponsored the revival of ancient French games, introduced the German type of physical training and formed athletic clubs modeled after those in the United States. These were but the preliminary steps in M. de Coubertin's plan to develop international competition as a means of promoting peace and amity between nations. In 1894 he summoned representative citizens of many lands to a meeting in Paris. Out of the conference came the formation of an International Olympic Committee, commissioned to arrange a cycle of athletic contests in the spirit of the national games of ancient Greece. The Committee accomplished its task and the first series of modern Olympic games was scheduled for Athens in the summer of 1896.



456 Pierre de Coubertin, courtesy of the American Sports Publishing Company, New York

457 The Stadium at Athens, 1896, from a drawing, after a photograph, in *The Illustrated London News*, April 25, 1896

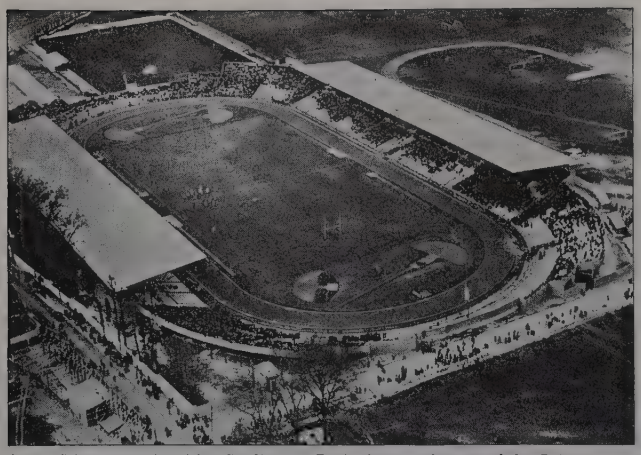
MODERN OLYMPIA

Such was the splendor of the initial revival of the Olympic games, so successfully was the spirit of the ancient contests recreated, that the American team petitioned the International Committee to make Greece the perpetual home of the periodic competition. On the banks of the Ilissus, high above the site where the sacred festival had last been held in Attica, modern Greeks had created a marble amphitheater greater than Olympia had ever known. Its every seat was filled and the hills around it were dark with spectators as the preliminary contests opened in 1896. When the first event, the hop, step and jump, was won by James B. Connolly of Boston, a mighty shout greeted the American victor. It seemed to hail him like the victors of old as one of the immortals. So each triumphant athlete heard the shouts of "Niké, Niké" from the enthusiastic crowds. But none received such a tribute as fell to the lot of a humble peasant of Maroiessi, Loues Spiridon, who crossed the line first in the marathon. For Greece it was the return of the days when the victor was crowned in the temple with the wreath of wild olive.

458 Princeton's Olympic Team, 1896 (Robert Garrett, seated, right), from an engraving in *Harper's Weekly*, April 18, 1896

THE FIRST OLYMPIC TEAM

When the sun went down behind the amphitheater on the last day of the games at Athens a little band of Americans received the plaudits of the multitude. Their victories in nine of the fourteen track and field events had been accomplished with a minimum of support from the country which they represented. There had been no concerted attempt to send the greatest team possible to Athens. Five men were sent by the Boston Athletic Association; four Princetonians led by Robert Garrett financed their own trip; while the Suffolk Athletic Club was represented by James B. Connolly, later to win fame as the author of Gloucester fishing tales. Connolly's success in the first event — the hop, step and jump — inspired his fellow countrymen. With remarkable ease they won first place in their specialties: T. E. Burke in the 100- and 400-metre dashes; T. P. Curtis in the hurdle race; Ellery Clark in the running high and broad jumps; W. W. Hoyt in the pole vault; and Robert Garrett in the shot put and discus throw. As event followed event the amazement of the spectators changed to unbounded admiration. The Greeks accorded them a truly Olympian triumph.



459 View of the Pershing Stadium at Paris, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

AMERICAN VICTORIES

With each successive Olympiad after 1896, the games became a more stupendous enterprise. Every four years hundreds of athletes gathered at the designated city to compete in an increasing number of events. Paris, St. Louis, Athens, London, Stockholm, Antwerp, and Amsterdam in succession entertained the representatives of amateur organizations from all parts of the world. From the Pershing Stadium at Paris in 1924 the flags of forty-five competing nations were flung to the breeze, while more than fourteen hundred athletes taxed the resources of the supervising committees in charge of the events. There was reason to fear that the multitudinous ramifications of the games had somewhat obscured the fine ideal of "joyous contest" which Pierre de Coubertin had cherished when he inaugurated the Olympics. Most Americans, however, seemed less interested in criticizing the shortcomings of the international meets than in applauding the triumphs of their athletes. In track and field sports where stress of competition was greatest and preparation had necessitated the most careful intensive training, our representatives were supreme. None could equal them in flat racing at short distances, and they found few peers in the hurdle races or in pole vaulting. Until the hard-fought contest at Amsterdam in 1928 American victories in the majority of the track and field events were considered inevitable.

460 James Thorpe, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

AT STOCKHOLM

Of the nine Olympic teams wearing the insignia of the United States none stands out above the rest. All have contained athletes of notable achievement, but few have surpassed in versatile ability the group which journeyed to Stockholm in 1912. Its accomplishments were hailed with enthusiasm both in this country and abroad. In the 100 metres race were Craig, Meyer, Lippincott, and Drew. Their chief rival was Patching, the great South African, but Craig broke the tape ahead of him to register an American victory. In the 400 metres distance Reidpath, Young, and Davenport finished with Reidpath leading the way down the track. Most thrilling was the stubborn contest and close finish in the 800 metres, when J. E. Meredith crossed the line one-tenth of a second ahead of M. W. Sheppard, his team-mate. A. W. Richards in the high jump and H. S. Babcock in the pole vault also brought victory to their team. But the hero of the games was James Thorpe from the Carlisle Indian School. His superb performance in winning both the pentathlon and the decathlon caused the King of Sweden in awarding the medals to address him as the "most wonderful athlete in the world." Though the glory of Thorpe's triumph was subsequently eclipsed by the discovery that he had violated the amateur rules, the range of his ability and his natural grace of movement will not soon be forgotten.

461 The American Olympic Team of 1912, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

THE POWER OF THE WEST

462 Charles Borah (left), from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

WHILE our teams have been winning at the Olympics, a notable change has come over the personnel of our representatives. Time was when the East furnished a quota of athletes out of all proportion to its population. On the first Olympic team every contestant came from the region east of the Alleghenies. But that day has passed. When the team was assembled in 1928 almost seventy-five per cent of its members listed their homes in the Mississippi Valley and the Far West. From California came a legion of sprinters, hurdlers, vaulters, and weight men. In the shorter distances were Frank Wykoff, the nineteen-year-old Los Angeles High School student, Charles Borah, and Charles Paddock. Lee Barnes of Los Angeles proved superior to Sabin Carr in the pole vault, while the weight events furnished Eric Krenz and Charles Houser. In addition to these champions from the Pacific Coast there was considerable ability in the contingent from the Middle West, notably John Kuck of Kansas City and Joie Ray of Chicago. The Olympic tryouts offered conclusive proof that athletic supremacy was passing beyond the narrow confines of any one section of the country.

463 Frank Wykoff, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

THE INTERSCHOLASTIC MEET

THE success of Americans in international competition is rooted deeply in community contests throughout the nation. The Olympic champion is merely the playground boy grown up. On municipal playgrounds, in school gymnasiums and during interscholastic meets he has profited by society's generosity in providing facilities and equipment, by the judicious care of experienced trainers, and by the wise counsel of unselfish coaches. Long before his name commands national attention, he has achieved a local fame as the result of some patient mentor's encouragement and advice. Too little recognition is given to the unnamed coach who first senses the future champion's native ability; too little significance is attached to the playground activities and competitive athletics of small schools and struggling associations. By them are nurtured both the amateur and the professional who achieve international fame.

464 Interscholastic Competitors at the Pennsylvania Relays, 1928, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

CHAPTER VIII

THE COMING OF THE GYMNASIUM

A SIGNIFICANT feature of the generation of American life following the Civil War was the increasing influence of the city in determining the pattern of our civilization. Rising upon the broad foundation of industrial prosperity, urban communities drew men and women into offices, shops, and factories in unprecedented numbers, and by reason of their size and wealth tended to set standards in thought and conduct for the nation. So rapid was their growth that mere physical adjustment often obscured important considerations of social well-being. Municipal authorities grappled, not always intelligently, with problems of street paving, transportation, lighting, water supply, fire protection and housing accommodations. In providing conveniences for the urban dweller accomplishments were sometimes highly praiseworthy, but toward the solution of such persistent problems as poverty, public health, juvenile delinquency and crime, progress was considerably slower. Although little attention was given to a scientific study of the causes and remedies of social distress, reformers and philanthropists denounced the vicious institutions which tended to degrade mankind and decried the absence of salutary agencies able to counteract the evils. A few earnest workers in the 'seventies began to appraise the relation between community manners and morals and the use which the average citizen made of his leisure time. They were convinced that American youth needed instruction in how to play as much as in how to work. A few were even bold enough to insist that civic problems would be more quickly solved if side by side with the industrial plant were the gymnasium and the athletic field.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century the recreational opportunities of the gymnasium were intimately associated with the work of social reform. The settlement house, the neighborhood club, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., and similar organizations became focal points in which much of the experimentation of an earlier day brought satisfying results. In them the best features of various systems of physical exercise were coördinated into a satisfactory modern program. The contributions of the German apparatus work, the Swedish free gymnastics, the American calisthenics and military drills were all recognized and used in promoting purposeful recreation. Physical training, once ignored, became at last the foundation of much social welfare work.

This was not, however, the sole function of the gymnasium in American life. Its presence in a community, under whatever auspices, usually meant the possibility of enjoying many indoor sports which were neglected before its construction. Within its walls crude tests of strength and prowess, typical of the frontier, became orderly and scientific wrestling matches and boxing bouts. The skill of the fencer was not unknown in the larger cities. With the swimming pool, an inevitable feature of the modern gymnasium, aquatic games and sports offered a variety of thrills. To those compelled by climate and living conditions to seek much of their recreation indoors, the gymnasium was an inestimable boon. It likewise enabled school and college authorities to carry out a comprehensive program of physical education, a consummation for which the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Training had striven ever since the report of Dr. Edward M. Hartwell in 1885 had aroused American educators from their complacent refusal to recognize the importance of *mens sana in corpore sano.*

FRIEDRICH LUDWIG JAHN

For the incalculable benefits of systematic gymnastics and physical education Americans are deeply indebted to the Prussian influence. One aspect of the national regeneration which stirred Prussia in the years following her humiliation at the hands of Napoleon was an effort to prepare her youth, physically as well as intellectually, for the task of liberating the country from foreign domination. In 1811 Friedrich Ludwig Jahn, teacher and patriot, founded the first "turnplatz" near Berlin. His object was to encourage bodily exercise and promote patriotic ideals, for his highest hope was that his German fellow countrymen might become

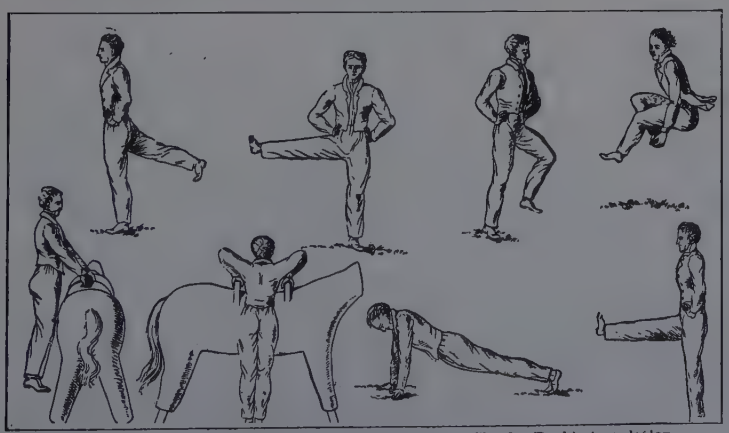
> "Frish, fröhlich und frei,
> Die mütigen söhne der Turnerei."

The movement spread rapidly, extending beyond the borders of Prussia until every large town in the German provinces had its turner society with whatever gymnastic equipment it could afford. "Every turning institution," wrote Jahn, "is a place for exercising the bodily powers, a school of industry in manly activity, a place of chivalrous contest, an aid to education and a protection to health."

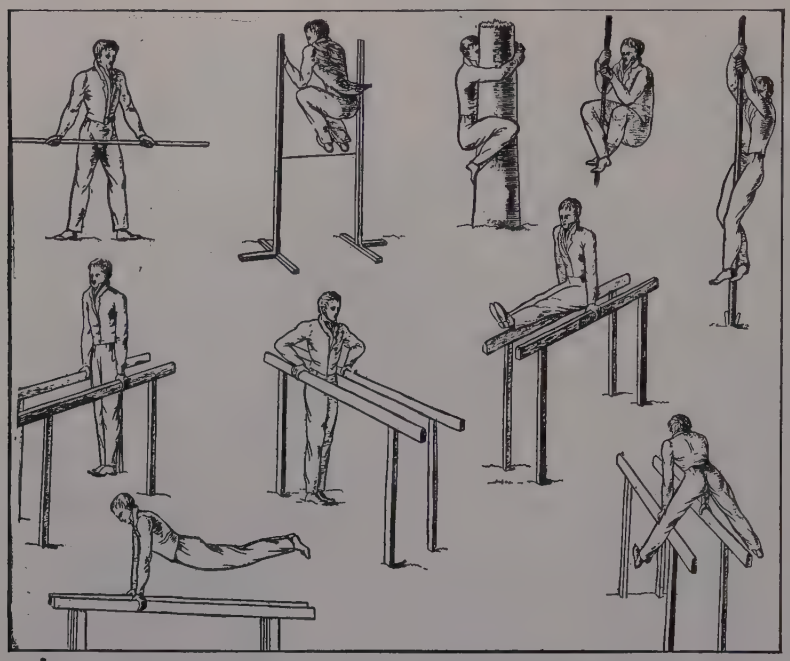
465 Friedrich Ludwig Jahn, from an engraved portrait in Charles H. Schaibee, *Essay on the Systematic Training of the Body*, London, 1878

DISCIPLES OF JAHN

Having played an important part in breaking the hold of Napoleon on central Europe the German *turnerei* fell into disfavor with the reactionary leaders who emerged triumphant from the Congress of Vienna. In 1819 Metternich's agents arrested "Father" Jahn. At the same time they suppressed the societies which he had inspired on the ground that they were centers of liberal or radical propaganda which threatened the peace of the continent. For twenty years Jahn was kept in prison or under close surveillance. Three of his followers, refugees in the United States, brought the Jahn system of physical training to the American people. Charles Beck, Charles T. Follen, and Francis Lieber were all young men of intellectual distinction when they fled to the United States. Beck and Lieber were doctors of philosophy, and the latter became a distinguished political philosopher in the land of his adoption. In 1825 Beck was appointed to the faculty of the Round Hill School at Northampton, Massachusetts, founded by George G. Cogswell and George Bancroft. Under the inspiration of Beck the first gymnasium in the United States took form in Northampton in 1825. It was an outdoor affair like those in Germany. In the following year Follen was called to Harvard to teach German. On the triangular field then known as the Delta and now occupied by Memorial Hall he established the first American college gymnasium. A few months later his work and enthusiasm resulted in a public gymnasium in Boston. In 1827 Follen turned over his work at the Boston Gymnasium to Francis Lieber. For the moment the German system of physical training caught the fancy of Americans who were sentimentally interested in the political refugees from Central Europe. Beck's translation in 1828 of Jahn's *Treatise on Gymnastics* helped to spread a knowledge of the German technique. Gymnasiums appeared in various cities and colleges in New England and New York.



466 Sketches of Gymnastic Exercises, from engravings in Charles Beck's translation of Friedrich L. Jahn's original *Treatise on Gymnastics*, Northampton, 1828



467 Exercises and equipment prescribed by Jahn, from engravings in Charles Beck's translation of Friedrich L. Jahn's original *Treatise on Gymnastics*, Northampton, 1828

THE JAHN SYSTEM

For a half dozen years Americans displayed a keen interest in the principles of German gymnastics. The outstanding characteristic of the Jahn system was a strenuous regimen, involving the use of relatively elaborate apparatus. In addition to the lighter work of running, leaping, vaulting, and dumb-bell drills, there were exercises on single and parallel bars, ropes, masts, and rope ladders and the important gymnastics performed on the wooden horse. The early gymnasiums were not fully equipped, neither did they succeed in carrying out Jahn's theories with reference to class drills. The military spirit and emphasis which pervaded German gymnastics was an obstacle to their acceptance by the non-militaristic Americans. After a period of prosperity, which was partly the result of their novelty, the vogue of the Jahn gymnasiums passed and the gymnasts found themselves caricatured in the print shops. In the few colleges which had turned to physical training the apparatus was seldom used by the students.

THE COMING OF THE TURNERS

The disciples of Friedrich Jahn were almost forgotten in the United States at the middle of the century, when a great wave of German migration broke upon our shores, bringing in its wake thousands of devoted members of the *turnverein*. In Prussia the societies had been revived by order of Frederick William IV, but their enthusiastic support of liberal principles during the revolutionary movement of 1848 had made them political refugees when liberalism failed to attain its goal. Their ranks swelled the numbers of disappointed and disillusioned Germans who sought political liberty in America. Under able leaders the turners organized anew. Hecker in Cincinnati, Rapp in Philadelphia, Jacobi in New York and Sigel in St. Louis were quick to group their countrymen into societies which not only offered opportunity for physical training but also encouraged fellowship and emphasized loyalty to a common tradition. Through the efforts of Friedrich Hecker, an exile who had been the hero of an uprising in South Germany, the *Cincinnati Turngemeinde* was organized in November 1848, the first German-American gymnastic society in this country. Within three years twenty-five societies had sprung up in imitation of the Cincinnati turners. From Boston to New Orleans and from Milwaukee to Baltimore, they appeared wherever the German immigration made an appreciable contribution to the community. In 1850 the eastern groups arranged for a national organization which under the name *Socialist Turnerbund* stimulated the formation of local societies.

468 Friedrich Hecker, from an engraving in *Allgemeine Weltgeschichte*, 1888

THE NATIONAL *TURNERBUND*

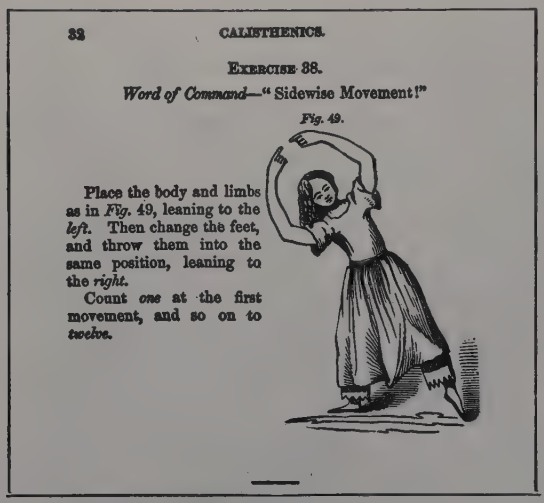
469 The New York Turnverein in its Early Years, from an engraving in *Zum Goldener Jubilacum des New York Turnvereins*, New York, 1900

In 1860 one hundred and fifty *turnvereins* recognized the jurisdiction of the national *turnerbund*. Through its instrumentality halls were built and gymnastic equipment installed; a small army participated in the social functions which it sponsored; its growing strength was a bond of union against nativist critics who denounced the immigrant and his ways. In the turnhall physical development was of primary importance, but the speech, songs and customs of the Fatherland were also cherished. Yet the turners were not uninterested in the problems of their adopted country. When war came in 1861, they sent sixty per cent of their members into the Union armies. In St. Louis they rallied behind Franz Sigel to hold Missouri in the Union, and elsewhere the discipline of the turnverein made them valuable recruits for the cause of the North. The outbreak of war interrupted an attempt to found a training school for physical directors, but in 1866 the first institute teaching the fundamentals of German gymnastics was opened in New York. In the course of time it prepared many teachers of the turner's art.

THE GOSPEL OF THE *TURNVEREIN*

The chief glory of the *turnverein's* activities was the annual festival, when hundreds of members demonstrated in public performances the results of painstaking practice in their gymnasium classes. One of the features of the World's Fair in 1893 was the mass exercise with nickel-plated wands performed by four thousand German-American members of the national *turnerbund*. At great outdoor picnics the turners and their families enjoyed the social pleasures as well as the physical recreation which their organization afforded. The local festival was often a training time for the national *turnfest*, where delegates from hundreds of societies competed in dumb-bell drills, wand exercises, and free gymnastics. Though the turners were anxious to show their loyalty to their adopted country, they were attacked at times as enemies of American traditions and ideals. Some charged them with excessive devotion to the Fatherland and feared that the *turnerbund* was a German national movement within our borders. Others saw sinister motives in the interest which many turners manifested in civic affairs. In its essence, however, the *turnverein* was a modern revival of the Greek ideal of building manhood through the harmonious development of body, mind and character. The routine work of the gymnasium was not monotonous to groups who appreciated its objective. The directors of German mass athletics exercised an influence beyond their own organizations. By minimizing the importance of the "struggle for victory" they helped Americans to see the benefits of non-competitive exercise and to gain a new perspective of the restorative power of systematic play.

470 Mass Exercises at the World's Fair, Chicago, 1893, from an engraving in the possession of the publishers


33 CALISTHENICS.
EXERCISE 38.
Word of Command—"Sidewise Movement!"
Fig. 49.
Place the body and limbs as in Fig. 49, leaning to the left. Then change the feet, and throw them into the same position, leaning to the right.
Count one at the first movement, and so on to twelve.

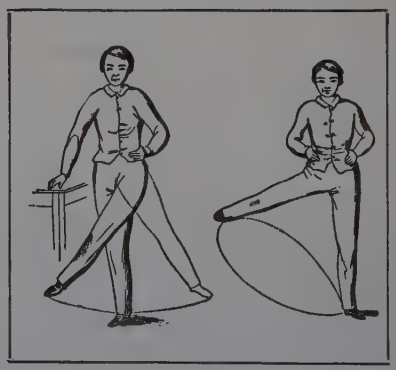
471 Calisthenic Exercises, from Catherine E. Beecher, *Physiology and Calisthenics*, New York, 1856

CALISTHENICS

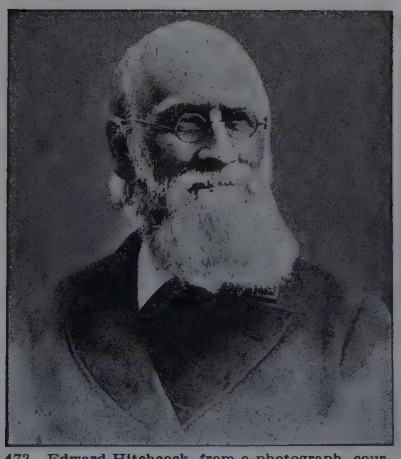
FROM the time of the introduction of the Jahn system many Americans had criticized the German apparatus work as too strenuous for the average man of sedentary habits and too exclusively directed toward muscular development. While Follen and Lieber were teaching gymnastics in Boston, Catherine E. Beecher, spurred on by that social concern which so profoundly influenced all her family, attempted to introduce a series of exercises which she hoped would be particularly beneficial to women. She made her "calisthenics" a part of the curriculum at Hartford Seminary and in 1837, when she founded the Western Female Institute in Ohio, she elaborated the system, endeavoring to adjust it to the needs of the human body. She stressed the simplicity of her program and its orderly progression from easy to more intricate movements. The exercises set to music were arranged to train the student in proper posture and correct carriage as well as to promote an understanding of the principles of good health. Miss Beecher characterized them as "grace without dancing." After almost two decades of experimentation she published a manual of physiology and calisthenics in 1856, which was unfortunately ignored by the school teachers to whom it was primarily addressed. Its content ran counter to the sex ideals of the time.

DIO LEWIS, 1823–1886

A FURTHER reaction against the heavy, complicated apparatus work of the German system was the "new gymnastics" introduced by Dr. Dio Lewis in 1860. He probably borrowed from the calisthenics of Miss Beecher, but his debt was even heavier to the Swedish physician and teacher, Peter Henry Ling, who had developed a system of free gymnastics in his training school at Stockholm early in the century. Lewis might well be called the "popularizer" of Ling's scientifically planned program which had been favorably received by American physicians before 1860. In his theories he emphasized flexibility and grace rather than laborious and exhausting exercise. Acrobatics found no place in physical training which, designed for both sexes, sought to harmonize movement with the melody of music. In the Normal Institute for Physical Education at Boston, Dr. Lewis trained many instructors of the "new gymnastics" who in later years secured recognition for the calisthenics which Miss Beecher had vainly championed.



472 Dr. Lewis' New System of Gymnastics, from sketches in Dio Lewis, *New Gymnastics*, Boston, 1884

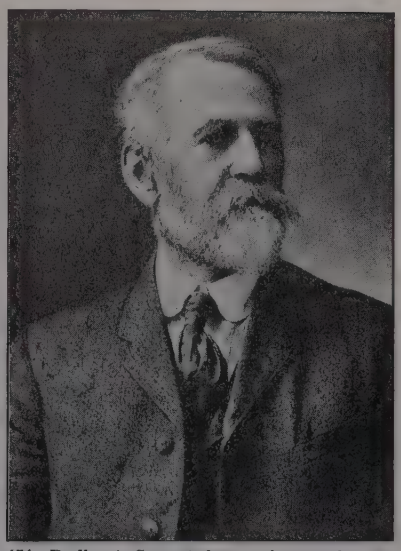


473 Edward Hitchcock, from a photograph, courtesy of Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.

EDWARD HITCHCOCK, 1828–1911

QUITE as significant as the contribution of the Boston Normal Institute was the work of Edward Hitchcock. When President Stearns of Amherst College stated in 1859 that "students should receive discipline in the care of their bodies as well as of their intellects," the trustees took his advice seriously. They made provision the following year for a department of physical education, equipped the Barrett Gymnasium and called Dr. Edward Hitchcock, son of Professor Edward Hitchcock, the distinguished scientist, to take charge of the new work. He refused to adhere rigidly to any system. For half a century physical education at Amherst meant more than mere muscular exercise and recreation. The director was a pioneer in the field of anthropometric measurements and charts, guiding successive generations of students along correct lines of physical development.

THE GYMNASIUM OF DUDLEY A. SARGENT

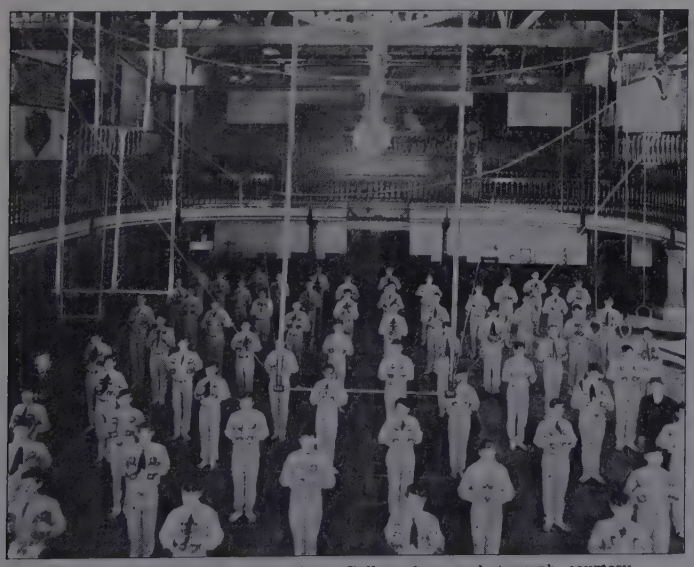


474 Dudley A. Sargent, from a photograph, courtesy of the Sargent School, Boston

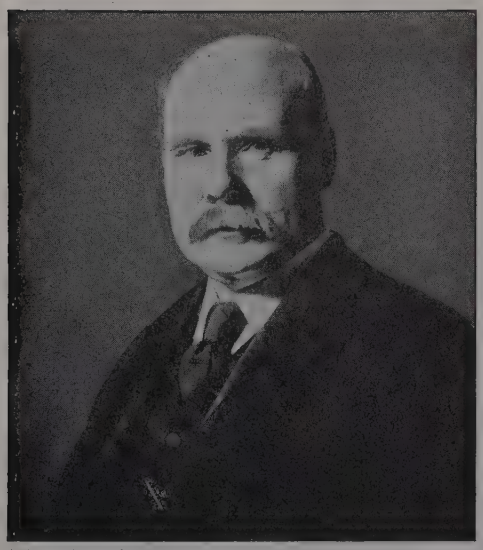
The appointment of Hitchcock at Amherst coincided with renewed interest in gymnastic work throughout the New England colleges. Some institutions, like Yale, increased their equipment, while others took steps to provide more adequate supervision of the physical training which they offered. At Bowdoin the faculty invited Dudley Sargent, then a student in the sophomore class, to become director of the meager gymnasium work in which his fellow students indulged. The young director was enthusiastic and very much in earnest Before he graduated from high school at the age of eighteen, he had made up his mind to translate his ideas about gymnastics and physical training into terms of concrete achievement. Bowdoin had thus offered him the opportunity which he most desired. He returned to the college in 1871 as instructor in physical education, which had been made a compulsory part of the curriculum. The following year he became director of the Yale gymnasium, but resigned to study medicine in New York. When Harvard opened the new Hemenway Gymnasium in 1878, it turned to Sargent for counsel, appointing him director and assistant professor of physical training. The young physician did not hesitate to make innovations. Selecting that which pleased him in the German and Swedish systems, he invented his own apparatus — the chest weights, inter-costal machine, and leg and finger machines being his devices. Ever the foe of indiscriminate exercise merely for the sake of muscular development, he taught successfully the creed that the gymnasium should serve men as individuals and not man in the aggregate.

THE COLLEGE GYMNASIUM

During the last twenty years of the nineteenth century American colleges were adjusting the campus as well as the curriculum to include the gymnasium. In many instances trustees and regents fought the idea of physical training until circumstances compelled them to grant an unenthusiastic assent. They had spent their youthful days on the farm, where no artificial inducement to bodily exercise was necessary. Too often they regarded the gymnasium as a city institution conducted by an ex-prize fighter or broken-down circus acrobat who posed as an expert in physical education. Such prejudices delayed the advent of gymnastic instruction in some colleges, and in others limited the appropriations so that the gymnasium equipment fell far short of the necessary paraphernalia. Most effective in changing this situation were the reports from well-equipped gymnasiums which showed in definite terms the bodily gains made by preparatory school and college youth, who had enjoyed a consistent regimen of gymnastics. Dumb-bell drills, exercises with Indian clubs, work on the parallel bars had been translated into gains in chest expansion, muscular development, and increased ability to ward off disease. Here was an answer to the critics which in the course of the last twenty-five years has placed the gymnasium in the center of the activities of the American college. The conception of its relation to physical education has changed, but it is being more carefully integrated with the recreational activities of the undergraduate.



475 Early Gymnasium Work at Amherst College, from a photograph, courtesy of Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.



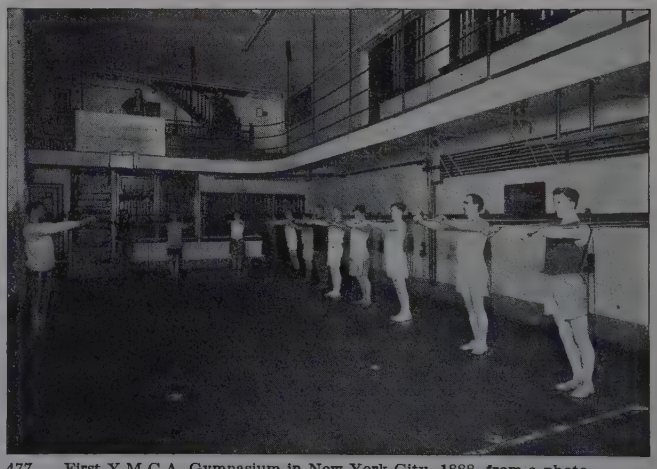
476 Robert McBurney, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Y.M.C.A.

ROBERT McBURNEY

Hitchcock and Sargent had the vision of a nation aroused from its apathy concerning physical training. Their endeavor to make the vision reality received invaluable aid from the Young Men's Christian Association. As early as 1860 that organization had resolved with considerable misgiving that "the establishment of gymnasiums is desirable and expedient, provided they be in all cases under exclusive control of such associations as adopt the feature." Six years later when the plans were prepared for a new Association building at Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street in New York City, Robert McBurney, then serving as executive secretary, included in the equipment a gymnasium, bowling alleys, and baths in order that the "physical condition" as well as the "spiritual and mental needs" of the young men under his jurisdiction might be cared for. When the building was opened in 1869, McBurney's influence secured the appointment of William Wood, who had successfully conducted a private gymnasium in the city, as physical director. Wood's work was not elaborate, consisting of calisthenic drills, a little apparatus work, and occasional sprints around the floor of the gymnasium, but it was an entering wedge which McBurney used with wise prevision to secure more general recognition of physical training.

CONQUERING PREJUDICES

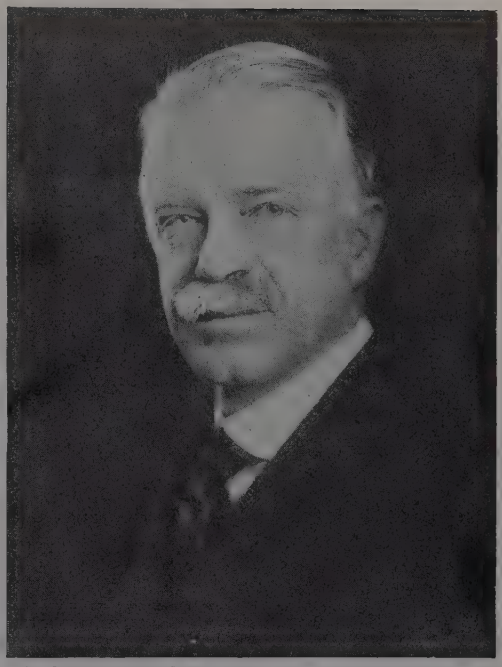
Throughout the national organization of the Young Men's Christian Association there were many who were prejudiced against the new features which had been introduced in New York. The official boards feared that this pandering to the needs of the body would interfere with the strictly evangelistic phase of the Association's work. Some prophesied that if physical training were recognized and encouraged it would soon subvert the entire organization. They felt that it would be impossible to hold fast to their original purposes if the old order yielded place to the new. "Muscular Christianity" was fraught with dangers too numerous for their conservative cast of mind. Many, who did not oppose the innovation, regarded it as of little consequence since it would merely serve as a lure to draw men under religious influences which they might otherwise shun or escape. No workers were more influential in conquering these prejudices than Robert J. Roberts and J. Gardner Smith. Roberts, while physical director in Boston after 1875, wrote numerous physical-exercise guides and lectured on the benefits of "body building" as related to character building. His enthusiasm was so contagious that scores of branches followed his counsel. To Dr. J. Gardner Smith, long physical director of the Harlem Branch in New York City, belongs much of the credit for breaking down the prejudice of the conservative religious leaders within the Association.



477 First Y.M.C.A. Gymnasium in New York City, 1888, from a photograph, courtesy of the New York Y.M.C.A.

478 Dr. J. Gardner Smith, from a photograph, courtesy of Dr. Smith, New York

LUTHER HALSEY GULICK, 1865–1918



479 Luther Halsey Gulick, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

Luther H. Gulick made his first contacts with the Young Men's Christian Association while he was a young medical student in New York City. Born into a family prominent in missionary work in Hawaii he had from youth been interested in what Charles Kingsley called "muscular Christianity." After a course in the Sargent School of Physical Training at Cambridge, he studied medicine in order to prepare himself as a medical missionary for service in the foreign field. One year as physical department secretary for the Y. M. C. A. convinced him of the need for physical education under religious auspices and he changed the pattern of his life's work. In 1887, though only twenty-two years of age, he assumed the pioneer post in the training of physical directors at the Springfield Training School. Under his leadership this phase of the Association's work grew rapidly. A conference of physical directors in 1892 standardized policies, while three years later the Athletic League of the North American Associations became a medium of coöperation between local groups in handling indoor and outdoor exercises and games. In similar fashion the Young Women's Christian Association and other religious and philanthropic organizations instituted programs of physical education, many of them following the outlines which Gulick had made familiar. Early in the twentieth century he agreed to organize a department of physical education in the public schools of New York City, a task which he carried out with honor to himself and incalculable benefit to the entire community.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION ENTERS THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

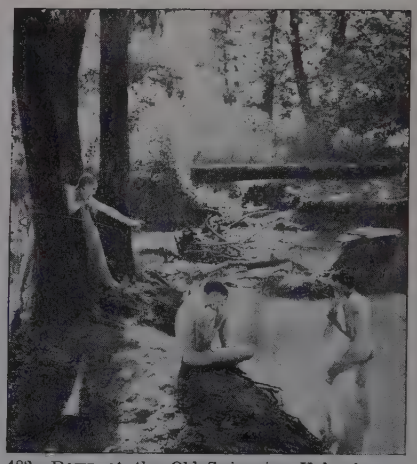
One of the continuing aims of the *Turnerbund* was the promotion of gymnastic work in the schools, but their efforts usually met with indifference or hostility on the part of the public school authorities. Even after a majority of American educators had become convinced of the merits of physical training, the lack of gymnasium accommodations and apparatus was a serious deterrent to the inauguration of the German system. In 1885 less than ten secondary schools in the country possessed a gymnasium in which apparatus work was possible. This difficulty did not exist in connection with the free gymnastics of the Swedish system, which required no elaborate apparatus. Though the work of Ling had been known for thirty years in the United States, it was not accorded wide recognition until 1889 when Baron Nils Posse with the financial aid of Mrs. Mary Hemenway established the Boston Normal School. The following year the Swedish system with certain modifications was introduced into the Boston public schools under the direction of Hartwig Nissen. Elsewhere in the country secondary schools compromised between the German and Swedish methods, or else formulated special programs of drills and calisthenics which could be executed in the schoolrooms without additional equipment.

480 Calisthenics Training in the New York Public Schools, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

481 R. G. Clapp, first all-round gymnastic champion, 1899, from an engraving in the Spalding Collection, New York Public Library

GYMNASTIC TEAM COMPETITION

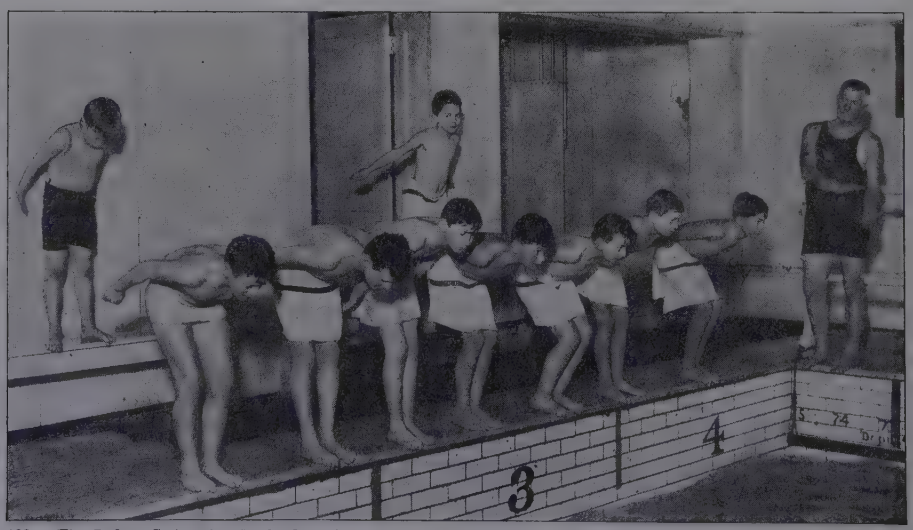
The emphasis on national championships which followed the formation of the Amateur Athletic Union in 1888 soon invaded the realm of the gymnasium. Athletic clubs, turnvereins and branches of the Young Men's Christian Association sent teams of gymnasts to the annual competitive events. On the horizontal bars, parallel bars, flying rings, and horse, they contested for individual and team honors. In these tests as well as in tumbling, club swinging, and rope climbing the championships went frequently to the representative of the turnverein. In recent years interest in competition between gymnasium teams has declined. The first meeting of college gymnasts in formal competition was staged at the gymnasium of New York University on March 22, 1899. Of the eighteen eastern and southern schools represented, eight joined in the formation of the Intercollegiate Gymnastic Union. Competition supplied a zest which was normally lacking in the repetitive exercises of the gymnasium. For several decades Yale and Columbia showed marked superiority in performance on the heavy apparatus, but in recent years the teams of the United States Naval Academy have demonstrated on the bars and rings that precision and skill which marks their military maneuvers.



482 Down at the Old Swimming Hole, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE SWIMMING POOL

The city lad seldom knew the delights of the old swimmin' hole, the cool, refreshing dive from a sloping rock and the joyous splashing in a dark pool where some sparkling brook had scoured a deeper basin. Instead, he shared with scores of other youth the accommodations of the floating bath houses on river front or seashore, where the benefits of cleanliness rather than the pleasures of swimming were emphasized. In the twentieth century he came into possession of a modern substitute for the "old swimmin' hole" — the gymnasium swimming pool. It lacked the sentimental associations which clustered about boyhood's summer rendezvous, but it afforded an opportunity to train better swimmers than ever emerged from the murky waters of the mud-bottomed stream.



483 The Indoor Swimming Pool, New York Athletic Club, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

484 High School Swimming Meet in Philadelphia, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

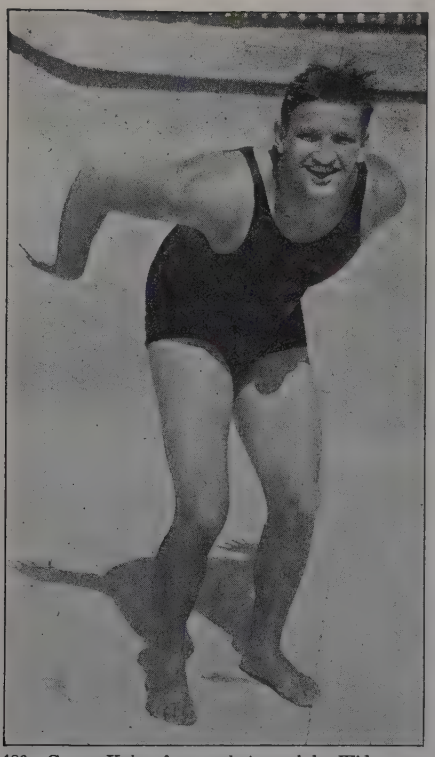
THE VOGUE OF SWIMMING

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, Americans overcame certain earlier prejudices against bathing; in the first quarter of the twentieth, they turned to swimming with genuine enthusiasm. The indoor pool was eagerly sought, especially during the winter months, by thousands of city folk. It became an inevitable accompaniment of the gymnasium in athletic clubs, on the college campus, in school buildings, and municipal recreation halls. It was the sign and seal of the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. in the eyes of the city boys and girls. Many never entered the championship meets, but under the instruction of competent coaches they became good swimmers. The vogue of swimming in an age already interested in athletic things was inevitable. It offers pleasurable exercise for all ages. Neither elaborate nor expensive equipment is necessary. Moreover the basic sport of swimming has a variety of phases; the competitive races, the water games, the art of diving, and life saving.

485 John Weissmuller, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

PERFECTING THE CRAWL

In the final decade of the nineteenth century Richmond Cavill of Sydney, Australia, began to use the crawl in racing. It was a stroke which had probably taken form among the island peoples of the southwest Pacific. The original crawl was characterized by a two-beat kick. Americans who tried to imitate Cavill's version of the stroke used a leg drive which resembled "a thrash made up of four very narrow scissoring motions approximately of even scope." They named it "four-beat crawl." In the United States, as in Australia, the arm action of the trudgeon became part of the new stroke. Soon after the introduction of the four-beat crawl, American swimmers perfected a combination of the kick of the trudgeon with the thrash of the crawl and produced a leg drive which was "composed of units marked by one comparatively wide and three very narrow scissors, or beats." These four-beat trudgeon crawls were short-lived. Within recent years the six-beat and eight-beat crawl have become popular among racers and the ten-beat has been used by a few. Since the days of Charles M. Daniels, who held the record in 1910, for every distance from twenty-five yards to one mile, Americans have made the crawl their own. The great Hawaiian, Kahanamoku, was a master of the six-beat crawl, using it to break world's records in the Olympic competition of 1912. For a dozen years his strength and build, as well as his technical perfection, made him an outstanding sprint swimmer. His magnificent performance was surpassed in the period after 1920 by John Weissmuller who lowered all previous time records for the shorter distances, both in indoor and outdoor competition.



486 George Kojac, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

OTHER STROKES

The traditional swimming stroke of Europe is the breast stroke. Europeans in early youth were taught the frog kick which characterized the stroke. American swimmers, generally learning the stroke at a later age, were not able to execute it with the perfection of their competitors east of the Atlantic, because they found it difficult to get the extreme outward rotation of the leg which was essential for speed. Since the World War the kick has been modified, as a result of American experimentation, in such a way as to make it possible to break the records established under the old form of the stroke. Americans have done much better with the new style. Among the men Walter Spence, representing the Brooklyn Central Y.M.C.A., has been a consistent performer in both the indoor and outdoor championships of the Amateur Athletic Union. Agnes Geraghty of the Women's Swimming Association has excelled among the women contestants using the modified breast stroke. The back stroke has likewise been developed by Americans in recent years. At first a reversed breast stroke, it evolved into a reversed crawl which was first used with great success by Hebner at Stockholm in 1912. In 1927 George Kojac of the Boys Club, New York City, won the national championship for the 220 yards outdoor and 150 yards indoor competition. The following year he cut down the time of various back-stroke events to unbelievable figures. Sybil Bauer occupies a similarly prominent place on the lists of those competing in the back-stroke events at the women's meets. In the years since the World War outstanding students and teachers of the technique of various swimming events have been William Bachrach of the Illinois Athletic Club, Robert Kiputh of Yale, and L. de B. Handley, honorary coach of the Women's Swimming Association of New York. The last named made himself by his coaching and his writing in the nineteen-twenties the best known swimming authority in the world.

487 L. de B. Handley, from a photograph, courtesy of L. de B. Handley, New York

DIVING

Diving is an exercise comparable to acrobatics. Prior to the World War styles in diving were set by Europeans, particularly by the Germans. It emphasized precision that was almost military and a minimum of body movements in executing the different dives. The spectator was able to follow every separate act of the performer. Since the War under the leadership of Earnest Brandsten of Leland Stanford the more complicated dives have been packed full of swift movements akin to those of the tumbler. In the new style Americans have been preëminent.

488 The finish of a jack-knife dive, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

INTERCOLLEGIATE SWIMMING MEETS

489 The Swimming Team at the United States Naval Academy, 1926, Annapolis, Md., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

Possessed of the first adequate indoor pools, the larger eastern colleges led the way in the development of intercollegiate competition in swimming. Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Pennsylvania and the College of the City of New York were founders of the Eastern Association which was copied by intercollegiate leagues in every section of the country. In the Western Conference, Chicago, Northwestern Wisconsin, and Illinois manifested the greatest interest in aquatic sports, becoming centers of influence in promoting intercollegiate competition throughout the Middle West. Many universities encouraged the schoolboys of the nation by arranging national meets at which the best talent from the preparatory schools demonstrated its ability to surpass records which had formerly been regarded as phenomenal when made by amateur champions.

THE WOMEN'S SWIMMING ASSOCIATION

The Women's Swimming Association of New York has been a great force in popularizing aquatic sports among women. It produced Gertrude Ederle, amazing in her speed and endurance; Helen Wainwright, displaying perfection of style in all her contests; Aileen Riggin and Helen Meany, graceful and accomplished in the art of fancy diving.

In this competitive age the feats of champions are duly heralded; the activities of those who never enter sectional or national competitions remain untold. Yet for every Weissmuller or Hebner there are thousands who find swimming a means to physical well-being or a pleasant diversion in leisure hours. This is particularly true among girls and women. The Y.W.C.A. and similar organizations provide the facilities for stimulating recreation for an ever-increasing membership.

490 Gertrude Ederle instructing members of the Washington Y.W.C.A., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

491 Frank Sullivan, from an engraving in Frank Sullivan, *The Science of Swimming*, American Sport Publishing Co., New York, 1921, courtesy of the publishers

WATER POLO

To make swimming less of a routine matter for the participant a number of aquatic games and sports have been devised, which improve one's skill in the water. Soccer polo applies to the swimming pool certain principles of Association football. Played by teams of seven, it is a game which every swimmer may enjoy. It lacks the element of personal encounter, but calls for speed in swimming and skill in handling the ball. Immensely popular in European countries, it has been somewhat overshadowed in the United States by another form of water polo. Up to the present Americans have not approached the Europeans in the perfection of their play in soccer polo.

The intercollegiate game of water polo differs from the soccer variety in its emphasis on personal encounter. Tackling is permitted and much of the play is in the form of scrimmage in close formation. Goals are made by touching with the ball held in the hand of the player. A smaller score may be won by throwing the ball. The development of recent years following the lead of Princeton has tended to emphasize speed and formation more than man-to-man struggle. The sport has won high standing in swimming circles, particularly among college teams. One of the reasons for the popularity of the sport is that it offers incomparable training to meet the emergencies of water accidents.

AQUATIC GAMES

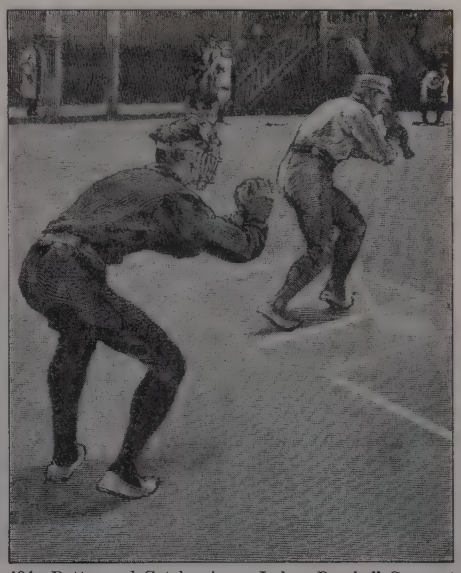
In 1903 Emmet D. Angell, seeking a form of play that would eliminate much of the roughness of water polo, invented and introduced the game of water basket ball at the University of Wisconsin. It was the beginning of a general attempt to organize recreation in the pool, so that the unskilled swimmer could participate in competitive sports. In cage ball, water volley ball and similar games, rules were devised which offered opportunity to the expert swimmer as well as to the player of less ability, so long as the competing teams were evenly balanced and the limitations of the pool were considered. Cage ball, for example, may be played by large numbers in a single game and swimmers of moderate skill may play up to the limit of his or her particular ability. That interest may not lag expert swimmers may be assigned to the forward or rover positions, while the novices guard the goals.

492 Water Polo, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

493 Water Basket Ball, from a photograph by Pacific & Atlantic Photos, Inc., New York

INDOOR BASEBALL

As soccer polo, cage ball, and water basket ball were devised to diversify the routine of swimming, so basket ball, indoor baseball and volley ball are modern inventions designed to lighten the labor of formal gymnastics. Of the three games basket ball has become the most important (Chapter X). Indoor baseball is the oldest. Its rules were originally formulated by George W. Hancock, who received his inspiration in the gymnasium of the Farragut Boat Club in Chicago. A broomstick served as a bat and a boxing glove as a ball in that first impromptu game in 1887. Borrowing heavily from the rules of baseball, Hancock used the soft ball and straight-arm pitching from a short distance to crowd his game into a playing field forty by sixty feet. It became popular with social clubs in Chicago, St. Louis, Milwaukee and other cities of the Middle West, and by the opening of the present century was a favorite diversion in many a gymnasium. Its heyday came with the war, when thousands in the cantonments played it indoors during the winter months or preferred it to regular baseball as an outdoor amusement. It still remains an invaluable asset in the armories of the National Guard.



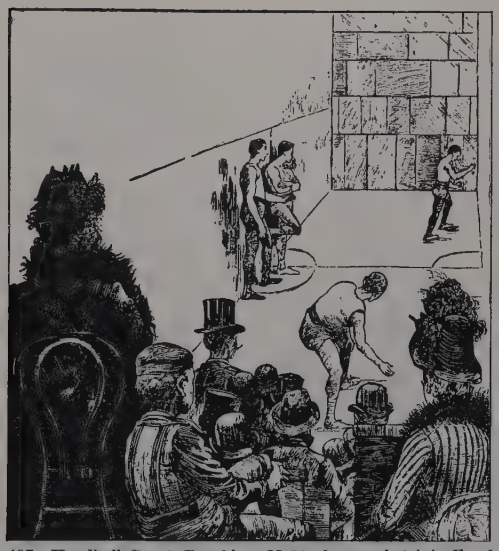
494 Batter and Catcher in an Indoor Baseball Game at the Thirteenth Regiment Armory, Brooklyn, from a drawing by W. P. Snyder in *Harper's Weekly*, March 8, 1890

495 George W. Hancock, "Father of Indoor Baseball," from an engraving in George W. Hancock, *Indoor Baseball*

VOLLEY BALL

Of more recent origin than indoor baseball is volley ball, the rules of which were suggested in 1895 by William G. Morgan, then physical director of the Young Men's Christian Association at Holyoke, Massachusetts. It was designed to meet the needs of gymnasium classes not equal to so strenuous a game as basket ball. Regarded at first as a glorified sort of battledore and shuttle cock, in which the object was to keep the ball going back and forth over a net stretched six and one-half feet above the floor, it quickly developed into an interesting diversion for men and women. The Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. were important factors in its expansion over the country, while the Playground and Recreation Association found the game invaluable for boys and girls. Within the last decade its skilled players have transformed it into a highly competitive sport. As "intensive volley ball" it is played by teams of six, carefully coached in the fine points of the game. In 1928 the United States Volley Ball Association was formed and the Herbert Lee Pratt trophy was offered to the best amateur team in the country, competing in the national championships.

496 A Game of Volley Ball on the U.S.S. Lexington, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



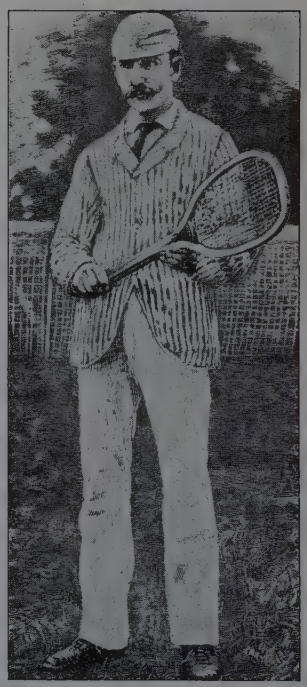
497 Handball Court, Brooklyn, N. Y., from a sketch in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, December 29, 1888

HANDBALL

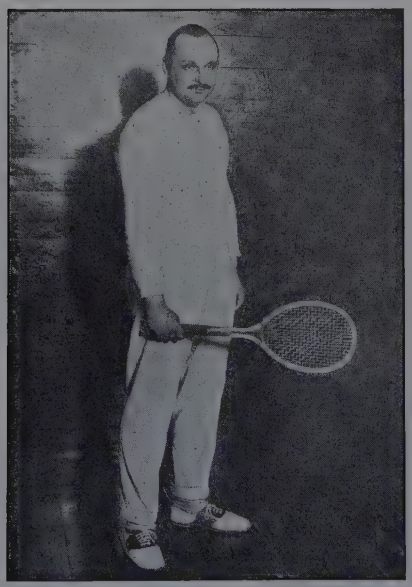
With the development of the gymnasium came a rapid growth of interest in the court games of ancient times. Handball, racquets, court tennis, and squash, all modifications of the same general principles, found a place in the exercises of clubmen and athletes. Handball, particularly, became an important element in the indoor training program of men preparing for strenuous outdoor sports. Celtic in origin, the game was played in Ireland and other parts of Europe centuries before the expansion of European influence overseas. In various forms it amused the English and Dutch colonists in America, but its importance in the sport life of our nation dates from the generation after the Civil War. Then Philip Casey and John Lawlor introduced the scientific features of the Irish four-wall game. Special courts were built in the larger cities of the East, but American players soon simplified both rules and courts. Using merely a front wall, they marked the floor with serving line and divided it into two courts. A small hard-rubber ball and a regulation glove completed the equipment. In this form handball became a favorite among the recreational exercises of the gymnasium.

COURT TENNIS COMES TO AMERICA

During the Middle Ages court tennis became a popular pastime among the kings and nobles of Western Europe. So well standardized were its rules and procedure by the sixteenth century that Henry VIII of England could cross racquets with Emperor Charles V in matches which the English sovereign delighted to win. In Great Britain the sport was not confined to the nobility, though commoners did not participate extensively until the eighteenth century. One of the greatest masters of the modern game was Thomas Pettit, who came to the United States from Kent shortly before 1890. An excellent tutor as well as player, he built up a school of followers in this country who learned to imitate his agility and mastery of the racquet on the indoor courts.



498 Thomas Pettit, from an engraving in *Leslie's Weekly*, June 14, 1890



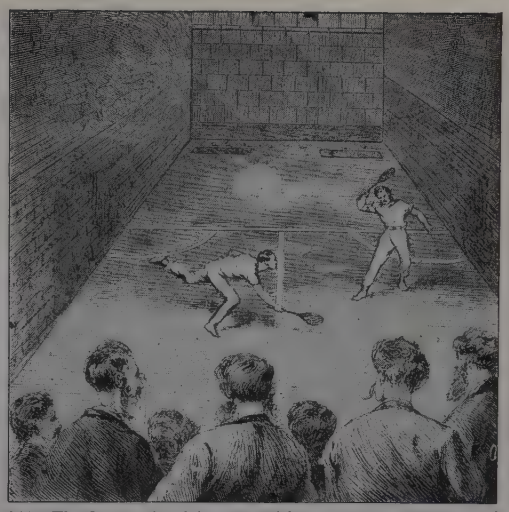
499 Jay Gould, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

AMERICAN CHAMPIONS

The first of the American champions was Richard Sears, also famous in the annals of lawn tennis (see No. 333), who won the title in 1892. Following him were several adept pupils in the principles of the Pettit game — Fiske Warren, L. M. Stockton and G. Richmond Fearing, Jr. The latter was tall and powerfully built, with a reach which enabled him to return whatever came his way. Fearing's fast overhead service was regarded with awe by most of his opponents. It was not, however, as unplayable as the "railroad" service with which Jay Gould shot the ball down the court. In Gould the followers of court tennis found their ideal champion. Covering the court with almost incredible speed he never erred in his judgment of distance and direction. During his career both the American championship and the world title have been his.

RACQUETS

RACQUETS combines features of court tennis with the wall game of handball. Originally an English sport played in open courts, it gave those who were not permitted to participate in the noble game of court tennis an opportunity to indulge in a similar diversion. The first indoor court was constructed in London in 1853, just a decade before the New York Racquet Club built its courts and invited English professionals to teach in America. Among these early experts was Frederick Foulkes of Leamington, England, who became national champion as well as preceptor of the gentlemen of the city interested in the sport. For many years the New York Racquet and Tennis Club maintained the finest courts and entered the largest number of players in the championship contests. Though New York lost this preëminence in the period after 1900, the metropolitan district still remains the center of interest in the sport. Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago clubs have developed skilled players.



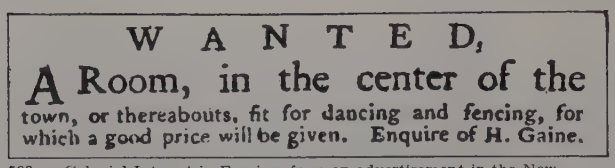
500 The International Racquets Match, between Foulkes and Gray, New York, April 22, 1867, from an engraving in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, May 18, 1867

501 Famous Squash Tennis Players, James Reid (left), and Walter Kinsella, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

SQUASH

Two indoor games of recent development, squash tennis and squash racquets, may be regarded as lineal descendants of racquets, though they differ in details. Both are played in a four-wall court with a racquet and ball, and both have won a considerable following among university graduates and clubmen in the larger cities. In squash racquets the racquet possesses a small round head and a longer handle than the squash tennis bat, while the ball lacks the liveliness of the squash tennis ball. The game, however, places a greater strain upon the player than does squash tennis, with the result that its followers are generally younger than the players in the other court game. Neither of the sports is so costly in the matter of initial outlay as court tennis or racquets, therefore neither is apt to remain so exclusively a diversion of wealthy clubmen. Indeed, the ranks of squash players, despite the lack of newspaper publicity, have grown rapidly since the World War in every large city. For the athlete who finds that business interferes with the sports in which he participated while an undergraduate, these indoor games offer a means of securing sufficiently strenuous exercise without the sacrifice of too much time. Squash tennis is still confined to New York and a few centers in the Middle West, but squash racquets has a national following, interested in establishing the fundamentals of the game, that enjoys the swift pace of play within the restricted area of the four-wall court.

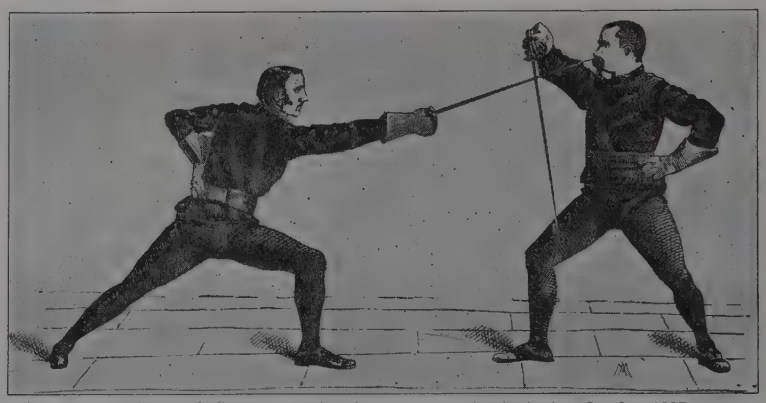
502 American Squash Racquets Stars in England, 1925, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York


WANTED,
A Room, in the center of the town, or thereabouts, fit for dancing and fencing, for which a good price will be given. Enquire of H. Gaine.

503 Colonial Interest in Fencing, from an advertisement in the New York *Mercury*, November 1, 1762

EARLY FENCING

In that division of gymnastics, known as "antagonistics," Americans have shown both enthusiasm and skill. The personal encounter of wrestling and boxing they thoroughly enjoyed; the more graceful art of fencing they slowly learned to appreciate. In colonial days fencing masters occasionally sought to arouse interest in sword play, only to discover that there were few students. John Rievers advertised in 1754 that he was prepared to teach fencing and dancing in New York City, but his successor, W. C. Hulett, was compelled to add violin and flute lessons to his repertoire in order to eke out an existence. French and Italian experts found the situation somewhat different in New Orleans, where owing to the French tradition there was more popular interest in the sport. The Rossières, father and son, were famous as fencing masters at the time we acquired from Napoleon Bonaparte the territory of Louisiana and its commercial metropolis. During the first half of the nineteenth century there were few adepts with the foil in this country. Among army and navy officers practice matches were occasionally arranged, but the art of fencing was virtually non-existent. One influence that directly tended to popularize the sport was the German migration to the United States after the revolutionary movement of 1848. The New York turners formed a fencing club in 1850, choosing as their master Franz Sigel who later led the Union forces in Missouri during the Civil War. The movement, which the turners started, was carried forward by the athletic clubs after 1870. French, Belgian and Italian fencers, as well as German, found an increasing clientele, as Americans turned to the foil and the saber for an exercise which trained them in grace and ease of movement as well as in quickness of hand and eye.



504 Late Nineteenth-Century Fencing, from an engraving in *Outing*, October 1887

DISTINGUISHED PROFESSIONALS

American fencers are deeply indebted to the European tutors who taught the fundamentals of the art in this country. From the French, Italian and German schools our clubs received through distinguished professionals the best elements of each. Perhaps fencing was somewhat hampered by the jealousy and rivalry between masters of different nationalities, but on the whole that emulation raised the standard of performance throughout the country. Notable among the masters were Corberier, who began teaching at the United States Naval Academy in 1862, Senac, the elder, first master at the New York Athletic Club, and Captain Nicholas, famous preceptor of the Fencers' Club after its formation in 1883. Worthy representatives of the French School included Rondelle of the Boston Athletic Club, Vauthier, master of fencing at West Point, and Jacoby, whose pupils in New York made his name famous in every part of the nation. Equally successful as teachers were the Italians, Costaldi and Piacenti in Boston and Terrone in Philadelphia. The German tradition of sword play was carried forward by Captain Koehler of West Point and Koch of the New York Turnverein.

505 Group of Professional American Fencers (Louis Senac, the elder, second from right), from a photograph, courtesy of Louis Senac, the younger, New York

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE ASSOCIATION

For thirty-five years the ranks of amateur fencers have been augmented by skilled foilsmen, who learned the art during their college days. In 1894, Harvard and Columbia established intercollegiate competition upon a formal basis, the arrangement being extended within a short time to include Cornell, West Point, Yale, Annapolis, Pennsylvania and Princeton. These institutions have remained the chief centers of college activity in the sport. From their well-tutored teams have come many national champions in foil, épée and saber competition.

506 J. R. Huffman and G. J. Wolf of Yale, 1925, Intercollegiate Saber Champions, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

NEW INTEREST IN THE ART OF FENCING

Since the organization of the Amateur Fencing League of America in 1891, a considerable number of our foilsmen have attained that sound judgment, light hand, and wrist of steel which mark the French champion. Though our amateurs had relatively few opportunities to see good fencing, they were inspired by the artistry of fencers like Fitzhugh Townshend of Columbia, A. V. Z. Post and Charles Tatham of the Fencers' Club of New York, and Samuel T. Shaw and C. G. Bothner of the New York Athletic Club. A decade later they watched with satisfaction the splendid defense and varied attack of A. E. Sauer of the Illinois Athletic Club and the versatility of Sherman Hall of New York. In recent years Lieutenant George C. Calnan of the United States Navy has won high honors in foil competition, while Leo Nunes, representing the New York Athletic Club, has displayed unusual skill with the épée and the saber as well as the foil. One of the weaknesses of American fencers which is gradually being corrected has been their failure to use the épée, or dueling sword, as extensively as the French, Belgian and Dutch experts have used it. Épée competition should be an exact imitation of a duel and calls for a more skillful defense than is true in foil fencing. Bouts can best be staged outdoors, which may account for the slowness with which Americans have mastered the dueling sword, since most of our competition is on the twenty-foot strips for indoor matches. As the épée has not completely come into its own, so the saber is but slowly receiving due recognition. For many years Americans regarded saber fencing as an excuse to belabor each other, as Edward Breck has well remarked, but the study and practice which the sport requires is now resulting in scientific matches with perfection of form.

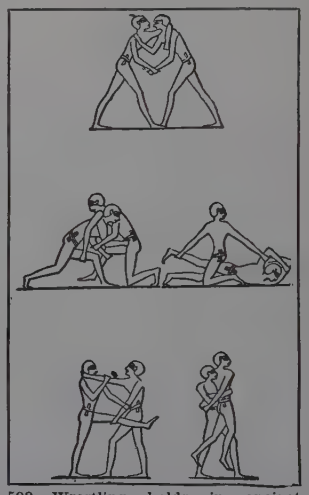
507 New York Athletic Club Fencing Team, with Charles G. Bothner (seated), courtesy of the New York Athletic Club

Neither saber nor épée is a suitable weapon for women fencers. Feminine interest has been confined to the graceful use of the foil. The competitive work of women was regarded at first as merely a form of exercise, but their skill was finally recognized by fencing organizations in Philadelphia and New York. In 1912 Adelaide Baylis of New York won the first national championship for women. Prominent among her successors in the championship have been Adeline Gehrig of the New York Turn Verein, and Mrs. Charles Hopper, and Mrs. L. M. Schoonmaker of the Fencers' Club of New York. Their work has stimulated a large number of women, especially from the wealthy classes of the country, to turn to fencing as invigorating sport. Since the formation of the first woman's collegiate team at the University of Pennsylvania in 1920, foils competition has expanded rapidly among the colleges. Bryn Mawr, Mt. Holyoke, Vassar, Wisconsin and Michigan have taken the initiative, finding in the sport so long neglected unique opportunities for physical training.

508 Wrestling in 3000 B.C., from a frieze on the tomb of Beni Hasan, Egypt, reproduced in Hugh F. Leonard, *A Handbook of Wrestling*, New York, 1897

THE ANTIQUITY OF WRESTLING

Of the many forms of athletic competition none save foot racing has so long a history as wrestling. This form of antagonistics was a perfected art three thousand years before the Christian era. On the walls of the temple tombs of Beni Hasan in the Nile Valley archæologists have found Egyptian decorations depicting wrestlers in more than two hundred holds, all of which are known to modern wrestlers. From their contacts with Egypt the ancient Greeks probably secured their knowledge of rules and procedure. By the time of the eighteenth Olympiad in 708 B.C. wrestling had become an important feature of the pentathlon. Athenians in the days of Pericles witnessed bouts conducted as part of the general education of Greek youth. Though kicking, striking and other rough practices were permitted, these exercises of ancient Greece were evidently modified through the centuries until they became the English and American "catch-as-catch-can" style of wrestling.



509 Wrestling holds in ancient Egypt, detail from the tomb of Beni Hasan, reproduced in Hugh F. Leonard, *A Handbook of Wrestling*, New York, 1897

THE BRITISH STYLES

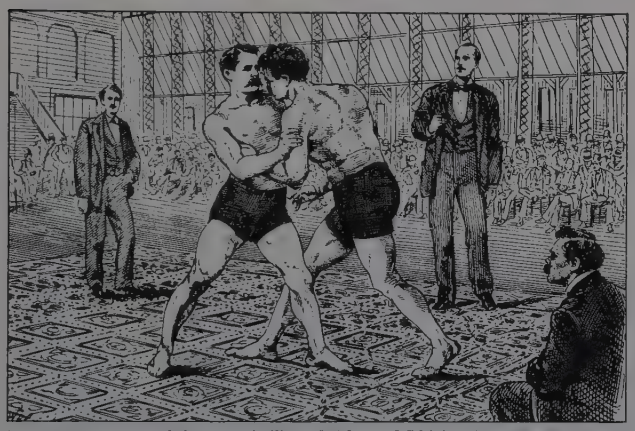
Under Roman auspices the fundamentals of Greek wrestling were probably brought into Great Britain during the Christian era. Different types of contest developed in various sections of the island, though it was late in the eighteenth century before these local types became easily distinguishable. The "Cumberland and Westmoreland" rules, which prevailed in southern Scotland and most of northern England, provided that the wrestlers, standing chest to chest, should grasp each other with locked hands, the right arm of each below and the left above his adversary's. The bout was won when either contestant broke his opponent's hold or forced him to touch the ground with any part of his person other than his feet. In the "Cornwall and Devon" or "West Country" style each wrestler was clad in a loose-fitting jacket, holds being permitted anywhere above the waist or on any part of the jacket. Under the rules a fall was difficult to obtain, since no ground wrestling was permitted and the victor was compelled to pin either two shoulders and a hip or two hips and a shoulder of his opponent to the ground. That form of combat popular in Lancashire offered a wider range of tactics. While it barred all strangle holds, almost any grip with arms and legs was permissible and tripping was a distinct part of the bout.

510 Cornish Wrestling, from an engraving in *The Sporting Magazine*. London, February, 1800

"CATCH-AS-CATCH-CAN"

511 A catch-as-catch-can wrestling match, from an engraving after a painting by Fletcher C. Ransom in *Collier's Weekly*, September 19, 1908

In the colonial days Americans were more interested in free-for-all fights and gouging matches than in any formal contests staged under English rules. Wrestling was not an imported sport but an indigenous growth which was rooted in that admiration for physical strength typical of frontier communities. As the testing of strength took the form of matches spontaneously arranged between local favorites, such rules as were applied followed the Lancashire method of wrestling. This was but natural, since "catch-as-catch-can," as it was called, more nearly than any other reproduced the tactics of the former rough-and-tumble fight and in rural districts was the logical successor of the frontier gouging match. In Abraham Lincoln's boyhood the champion wrestler was regarded with high esteem by his neighbors.



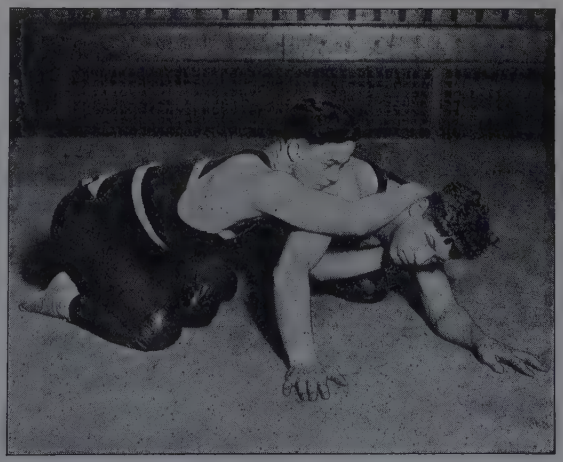
512 Wrestling match between William Miller and Thiebaud Bauer, from a drawing in *The Daily Graphic*, New York, July 5, 1877

IN THE GYMNASIUM

The transition from strenuous but unscientific matches between local "strong men" to scheduled meetings of champion wrestlers was accomplished slowly. In the process the stimulus of the gymnasium was significant since it trained those possessed of native ability to use skillfully the holds which had survived through the centuries. Athletic clubs, gymnastic associations and college students turned to wrestling as a form of physical exercise more interesting than the routine drill of gymnastics. Leaders in physical education insisted that the trained wrestler acquired not only muscular strength but also agility, quick perception, ready response, patient endurance, and coolness in the midst of combat. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century they made a concerted effort, which was richly rewarded, to interest American youth by placing catch-as-catch-can wrestling on the program of gymnasium activities.

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE WRESTLERS

In 1903 wrestling was placed upon a more stable basis in the East by the formation of the Intercollegiate Wrestling Association. Yale, Princeton, Columbia, and Pennsylvania initiated the league, but they were joined subsequently by Cornell, Pennsylvania State College, Lehigh, and Syracuse. Yale's teams dominated the annual championship meets for a decade, but since 1918 Pennsylvania State has finished first with remarkable regularity. The contests are divided into six weight classes in addition to the heavyweight championship. Decisions are given on a time allowance basis, the man on top for a certain period being adjudged the victor. Scores of dual meets are held each year under the auspices of the National Collegiate Wrestling Association.

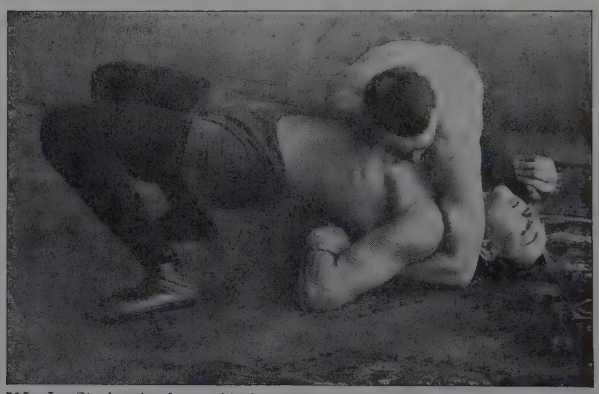


513 Members of the Columbia University wrestling team in a practice match, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

514 A Trial Bout in the Amateur Wrestling Championship held by the American Athletic Union, at the New York Athletic Club, from a sketch in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, April 14, 1888

CHAMPIONSHIPS OF THE AMATEUR ATHLETIC UNION

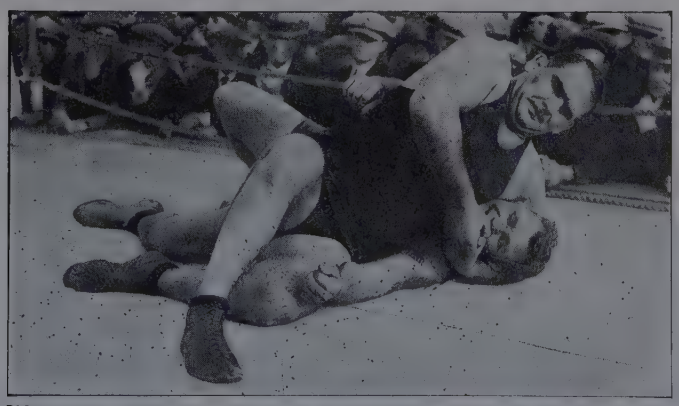
Among amateur wrestlers the annual championships of the Amateur Athletic Union represent the crowning event in the season's competition. Interest has increased steadily during the last quarter century and a notable change has occurred in the character of contestants. In the early years of the present century a majority of the grapplers were drawn from the ranks of the eastern athletic clubs. Since that time there has been a steady growth in the number of participants from the Middle West and Southwest. At the same time the athletic club contingent has been equaled by the wrestlers attending the meets who have been trained in high schools, academies, and colleges. The practice of the Amateur Athletic Union in holding the championship competitions in various parts of the country has had a noticeable effect in promoting interest outside the urban areas of the eastern states. Though the catch-as-catch-can style has been universally followed in the United States, the Metropolitan Association of the Amateur Athletic Union conducted a tournament in the spring of 1929 in the Graeco-Roman style, which bars all holds below the hips and forbids the contestants to employ their legs in effecting a fall by tripping. It is hoped that training in Graeco-Roman wrestling which predominates in Europe will help American contestants to understand the Olympic rules which are at variance with American catch-as-catch-can.



515 Joe Stecher (underneath), from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

PROFESSIONALS

The professional wrestler, like the bare-knuckle pugilist, was regarded as a suspicious character in the United States for many years. Though most Americans admired strength and enjoyed seeing it displayed, they distrusted the character of the men who sought to make a living by their triumphs on the mat. One of the first professional wrestlers to win public confidence as well as applause was Frank Gotch. An Iowa farmer who was locally famous before he left the little town of Humboldt, Gotch won national recognition in 1908 by his victories over George Hackenschmidt and Yussif Mahmout. For several years he held the championship in the heavyweight division, his holds and tactics being the subject of much comment by students of wrestling. Like Gotch, most of the heavyweight champions of recent years have come from the Middle West. The title has been held by Earl Caddock of Iowa, Joe Stecher of Nebraska and Ed "Strangler" Lewis of Kentucky, while Wayne Munn of the University of Nebraska has kept abreast of the best in professional circles. On the basis of financial returns wrestling has proved disappointing to its promoters. The technique of the mat game appeals less to spectators than the equally strenuous encounters in the boxing ring



516 "Strangler" Lewis (above) wrestling with his sparring partner, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

SCIENTIFIC BOXING

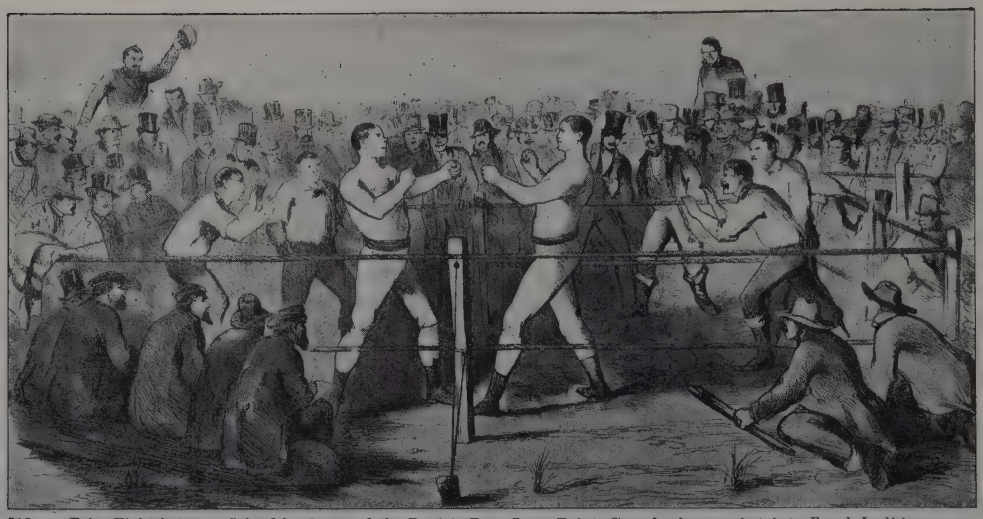
517 Medical Examination of the Pittsburgh Boxing Team competing in the National Amateur Athletic Union Bouts at the Boston Arena, 1929, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

Boxing, like wrestling and fencing, was stimulated by the development of the gymnasium and all that it represented in American life. Sparring with the gloves became a scientific sport in the 'seventies of the last century. Long associated in the public mind with the disrepute of the prize ring, it finally emerged as a beneficial exercise and pleasant pastime. From the Olympic Club in San Francisco to the fashionable clubs of New York encouragement was given to amateur boxers, who strove to learn the art of gauging distance, the elements of defense and the first principles of forceful hitting. Bouts were arranged by the athletic clubs, usually open to club members only, at which the more talented displayed their prowess to the delight of small but discriminating audiences. Despite the modern equipment, the carefully formulated rules, and the scientific preparation of the participants, these matches revealed that primeval joy testing strength and endurance, which marked the spontaneous rough-and-tumble of frontier days.

AN AID TO PHYSICAL FITNESS

In the gymnasium boxing was stressed as one of the important roads to health. The athletic clubs organized special classes under competent instructors. "Professors of boxing" opened private gymnasiums in the cities, urging their clients to profit from the physical and mental benefits of the manly art of self-defense. In the physical education program of colleges and preparatory schools boxing was included with increasing frequency. Its possibilities in health-building were dramatically presented in the person of Theodore Roosevelt, who scoffed at prejudice in his desire to persuade the nation that boxing was not brutal sport but beneficent exercise. His own experience from college days to presidential years well illustrated his theme. At the same time, the amateur bouts under the auspices of the American Athletic Union were attracting spectators who had turned with disgust from the battles in the prize ring.

518 Boxing Instruction in the Public Schools of New York, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York



519 Prize Fight between John Morrisey and the Benicia Boy, Long Point, Canada, from a sketch in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, October 30, 1858

THE BARE-KNUCKLE ERA

The vogue of amateur boxing during the last quarter century has had a profound influence upon the exhibitions of professionals in the prize ring. The cool calculation of the skilled boxer has steadily replaced the brute strength, and often brutal tactics, of the slugger. It has been due to the pressure of a public opinion created by those who appreciated the difference between the free-for-all fight and a scientific contest in the ring. Americans have ever been inclined to settle disputes by fisticuffs, but only in recent years have they accepted professional boxing without pronounced opposition. Its history both in England and this country was sufficient to warrant their unfavorable verdict. The first professional bouts in the United States, for example, were between slaves, whose masters found them more profitable as fighters than as laborers. Tom Molyneux, who claimed the heavyweight championship at the opening of the nineteenth century, was a freed negro, more profitable to his promoters in his English bouts than in his brief tour of the United States. His immediate successors engaged in grueling contests with bare knuckles, which lasted in most cases forty or fifty rounds. There were few rules. Some matches degenerated into fights in which the principals indulged in kicking, biting and gouging. The patrons usually were drawn from the lowest stratum of society, the boxers were disreputable characters, when they were not criminals. In 1841 James Sullivan arrived in San Francisco (then Yerba Buena) from a sojourn of twenty years in a British penal colony in Australia. Named "Yankee" by his admirers, because he always wore an American flag as a girdle when he fought, Sullivan proved the kind of champion that the patrons wanted — a ready and willing fighter. For a dozen years his skill was sufficient to keep him in the front rank though he lacked weight and strength. Tom Hyer beat him in 1849, but Sullivan clung to the title of heavyweight champion until 1853, when John Morrisey, who had disposed of the lesser contenders, clearly defeated him in a fight which broke up in a free-for-all battle among the spectators. Morrisey was of different clay than his predecessors. He trained for his fights, was generally in condition despite his weight, and fought with an honesty of purpose that was not common in his opponents. Never beaten in the ring, he retired in 1858 to enter business, where he made a fortune that enabled him to become a political power in New York City.

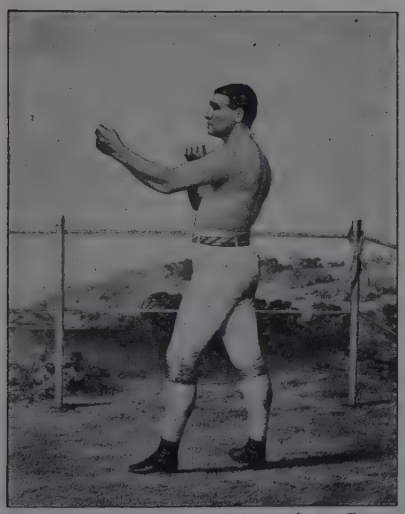
520 Yankee Sullivan, from an engraving in the New York *Clipper*, June 7, 1884

521 John Morrisey, from an engraving in *Harper's Weekly*, May 18, 1878

THE HEENAN–SAYERS BATTLE

522 The Fight between Heenan and Sayers, 1860, from a lithograph by Jem Ward, courtesy of the Racquet and Tennis Club, New York

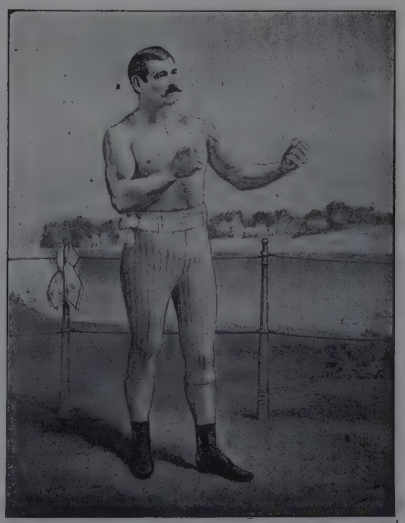
After Morrissey's retirement John C. Heenan assumed the title of American champion. Few challenged his claim but he traveled over the country giving sparring exhibitions with theatrical troupes. Somewhat weary of mere posing, he started negotiations for a match with Tom Sayers, then considered the best professional boxer in England. At Farnborough, near London, the two men met in a twenty-four foot turf ring on April 17, 1860. An unusually representative audience, including the Prince Consort and Lord Palmerston, witnessed the two-hour battle between the American challenger who weighed 190 pounds and the agile little Englishman whose 150 pounds was scarcely adequate for the occasion. In the seventh round Sayers pulled a tendon in his right arm and thereafter could use it only for defense, yet he continually worried his opponent with the rapid action of his left. Just as the police were about to stop the fight, the referee declared the bout a draw and awarded a reproduction of the championship belt to each of the contestants. Whatever honor attached to the affair belonged to the courage and stamina of the Englishman who had fought against tremendous odds.



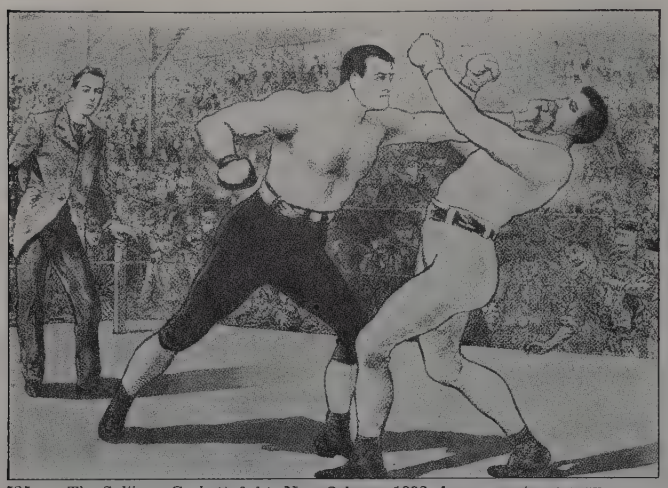
523 Tom Sayers, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, courtesy of the Racquet and Tennis Club, New York

JOHN L. SULLIVAN

For twenty years after the Heenan-Sayers bout professional boxing remained under a cloud of popular disapproval. Promoters and principals were alike distrusted. The sport was denounced as a relic of barbarism. Every state in the Union had outlawed it. Whenever bouts were arranged, the threat of police intervention was imminent. Then a champion appeared whose genius for advertising was an important factor in creating a new opinion of the prize ring. Born in Boston in 1858, John L. Sullivan emerged from the welter of mediocrity in 1881. Possessed of enormous strength and driving power, he also knew something of the technique of boxing. Though his eccentric conduct disgusted some, it impressed the crowd. To many, his blatant boisterousness was merely a sign of forceful personality. His prowess quickly became legendary. In 1882 following his victory over Paddy Ryan he was hailed as the new champion of America, a title which he guarded for ten years. During his reign Sullivan's influence was cast against the spirit and tactics of the "bare-knuckle era." Although his great fight with Jake Kilrain in 1889 was fought with bare fists, he preferred to fight with gloves under the Marquis of Queensberry rules. Beneath his apparent ferocity was a genuine desire to bring more restrained tactics into the ring.



524 John L. Sullivan, from a lithograph by Currier & Ives, courtesy of the Anderson Galleries, New York



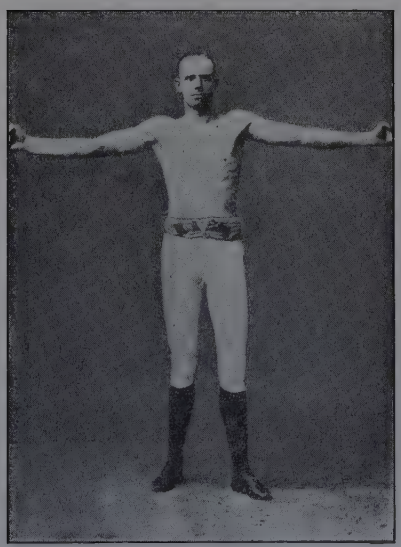
525 The Sullivan-Corbett fight, New Orleans, 1892, from a contemporary print, courtesy of *The Ring*, New York

THE OLD ORDER CHANGES

THE first rules for professional boxing in England were drafted in 1743 by John Broughton, the "father of English boxing." They did little to curb the turbulence of the prize ring, permitting any method whereby the fighter could dispose of his opponents. Almost a century later concessions were made to caustic critics of the sport in the form of the London Prize Ring Rules of 1838. Whatever improvement was contemplated was largely nullified by the persistent refusal of the participants to keep within either the spirit or the letter of the law. In the 'sixties, when boxing was suffering a well-deserved eclipse, the Marquis of Queensberry came forward with the following proposals: that in all bouts the round be limited to three minutes with a minute rest interval; that when a boxer was floored he be given a count of ten in which to rise; that falling without cause be forbidden; that certain blows be declared illegal; and that each participant in a public bout be compelled to wear five-ounce padded gloves on his hands. Americans accepted the new code slowly. Not until Sullivan's day did the professionals show an inclination to abandon the old rules. The first boxer of championship caliber to represent the new order was James J. Corbett. "Gentleman Jim," as his supporters knew him, was a student of technique. At the Olympic Club in San Francisco, famous for its encouragement of amateur boxing, he used the facilities of the gymnasium to put himself in condition and to practice the tactics which he had carefully planned. Of somewhat slighter build than many heavyweights of his day, he found a compensatory advantage in the craftiness of his ring generalship. Few have equaled the accuracy of his timing and the swift sureness of his footwork. When he conquered Sullivan in 1892 at New Orleans the entire bout was a tribute to his studious appraisal of his opponent's strength and weakness.

CHAMPIONS OF THE NEW ERA

THE high standard of boxing technique set by Corbett was a goal which his successors constantly strove to attain. Some of them were greater fighters than "Gentleman Jim," but few duplicated his speed and style. Lanky Bob Fitzsimmons, who administered the famous "solar plexus" blow to Corbett at Carson City, Nevada, in 1897, always looked awkward in the ring. When he lost the title two years later, it was to a burly, powerful man, who never learned to box well. Despite all his training as Corbett's sparring partner James J. Jeffries relied upon his ability as a hard hitting, aggressive fighter to retain the championship. During his prime he never met a boxer clever enough to withstand his attack, but in 1910, after five years in retirement had robbed him of his strength, he faced in Jack Johnson, the negro heavyweight, a man both skilled in boxing and equipped with hitting power.



526 Robert Fitzsimmons, from a photograph, courtesy of *The Ring*, New York

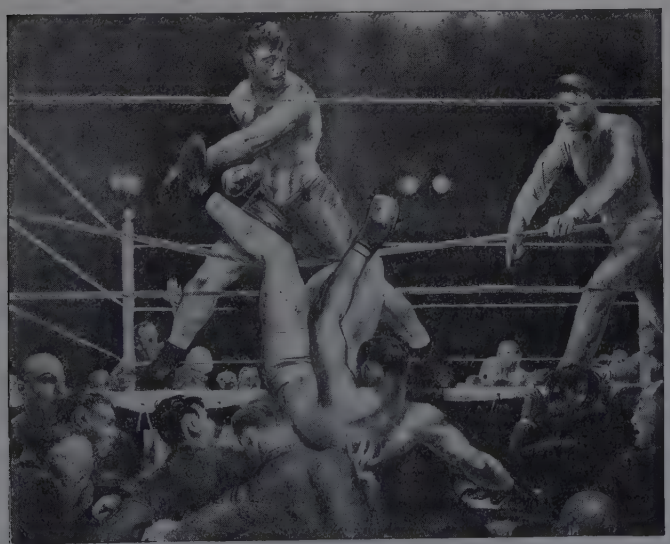
527 James J. Jeffries, from a photograph, courtesy of *The Ring*, New York

528 Tex Rickard, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

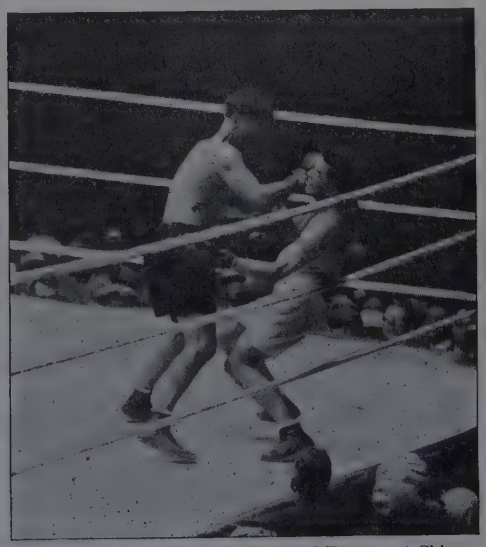
"THE ROAR OF THE CROWD"

During the first quarter of the twentieth century the friends of the prize ring, building along the lines indicated by Sullivan and Corbett, finally made professional boxing a sport of good repute. The gloved bouts had removed much of the popular objection. Amateur boxing in clubs and gymnasiums had aroused interest in the professional champions. The changed opinion was reflected in the press. Once the fights had been denounced, ignored, or described in a few obscure paragraphs. By the time of Jeffries, columns of the sports pages were devoted to accounts of the important bouts and the activities of the champions. In 1926, when Tunney outboxed Dempsey in decisive fashion, his victory was headlined as an event of international importance. Increasing crowds and mounting receipts likewise reflected the change in public opinion. State after state legalized ten-round boxing bouts between professionals. Promoters reaped a golden harvest from the sport which had formerly been outlawed. None realized the possibilities of the new era more fully than George L. Rickard. A genius for showmanship comparable to that of Phineas T. Barnum enabled him to stage championship matches which delighted throngs drawn from every walk of life. Bankers and laborers, lawyers and novelists, society leaders and shopgirls became part of the thousands who crowded the great outdoor arena. From the Willard-Dempsey match at Toledo in 1919 to the second bout between Dempsey and Tunney at Chicago in 1927, each of Rickard's ring spectacles was a masterpiece of showmanship. Whether he presented the fighting spirit of a Dempsey, the unknown strength of a Firpo or the superb strategy of a Tunney, he heard always the roar of the crowd which had accepted professional boxing as a sport worthy in its own right. It was a crowd whose attitude was well stated by the Belgian poet, Maeterlinck, when he wrote: "Boxing is not degrading. It is the discipline of violence. The boxer is not a rowdy. He is confident in his knowledge. Combative instincts are an integral part of our nature. They who lack them, lack mental energy."

529 James J. Tunney, from a photograph by Pacific & Atlantic Photos, Inc., New York



530 Firpo knocking Dempsey out of the ring, from a lithograph by George Bellows, in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York



531 Fight between Dempsey (left) and Tunney, at Chicago, July 1927, from a photograph by Pacific & Atlantic Photos, Inc., New York

CHAPTER IX

FOOTBALL AND THE SCHOLASTIC INFLUENCE

AT the opening of the present century the American version of Rugby football was less than twenty-five years old. Though it bore slight resemblance to the rough and tumble game which had been a joy to British villagers for centuries, it was sufficiently similar to physical combat to arouse protests against its brutality. Some educators styled it "an impossible intercollegiate sport," and called for its abolition. Others felt that its prestige was rapidly declining and debated whether the game was worth saving for future generations. Less than twenty years later football had become the major sport on almost every college campus, and was played throughout the secondary schools of the land. Many who had prophesied its rapid decline were now concerned lest its influence had become too dominant. They feared that it was bulking too large in the undergraduate's conception of the meaning of college life. A few critics even charged that the sport had become a sort of religion; that its stadiums were magnificent shrines; that its contests had taken on the nature of ritual.

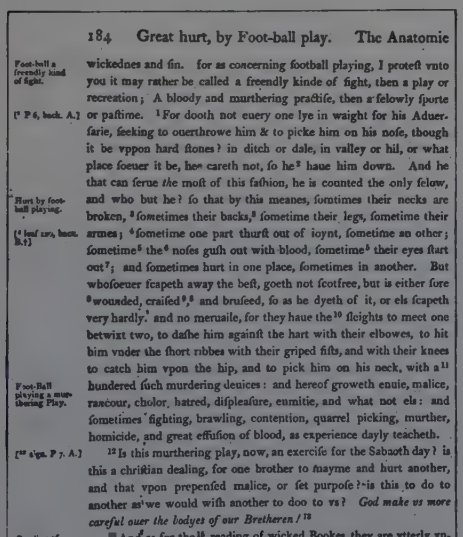
The explanations of football's tremendous vogue have been many and varied. Social psychologists, following Karl Groos in his "practice and preparation" theory of play, insisted that the discipline of the gridiron trained men's faculties for future usefulness in the serious activities of life. It offered ideal preparation to the youth who would ultimately take his place in the highly competitive system of the modern industrial age. Other theorists fitted football into the anthropological meaning of all play. In children's games, they insisted, there is a tendency to imitate the early history of the race. An evident parallelism exists between the sports of men and the life of primitive man. Football is peculiarly reversionary; its paraphernalia suggest the serious activities of earlier times; the running, dodging, and tackling resemble the swift flight, pursuit, and capture of the days when fleetness of foot was important for survival; in the personal collisions of the scrimmage line are reproduced the struggles of hostile forces drawn up in primitive battle array. For the spectator this stirring of latent instincts and impulses affords relaxation, releasing him from the proper and inhibitory standards of modern society and enabling him to pour out his pent-up emotions in response to stimuli utterly different from those encountered in the routine of his daily tasks.

Though football's hold upon us may be the grip of that which is racially old, its influence permeating American life has been related to certain tendencies of the last two or three decades. The sport reached its maturity during the years which Theodore Roosevelt made memorable with his gospel of the "strenuous life." To him football was the great moral force capable of preparing its devotees to become aggressive and intelligent civic leaders. No one can estimate how mightily the leaven of his speeches and writings worked in convincing his fellow countrymen of the merits of the gridiron game. At the same time men of vision, notably under the inspiring direction of Walter Camp, carefully planned the sport's development along lines which perpetuated football's close association with the college. As the enrollment of secondary schools and colleges increased, the curiosity of the public about all things collegiate grew apace. Thousands of college alumni were joined by other thousands who found in watching football's pageantry at least a superficial connection with college life.

532 Piazza Santa Croce, Florence, Italy, as a football field in the sixteenth century, from an engraving in the possession of the publishers

AN ELEGANT TOURNAMENT

LIKE every game in which a ball has an important place, football has developed from simpler forms which we can discern only vaguely in the mists of antiquity. Learned lexicographers assure us that *harpaston*, once highly esteemed in Sparta, was strikingly similar to modern Rugby, since the players sought "to drive the ball by passing, kicking or carrying across the opposite goal-line." Modified during the days of Rome's supremacy, this Spartan pastime, under the name of *calcio*, was presented with the pomp and circumstance of a medieval tournament in many an Italian city. Its formal elegance during the sixteenth century often entertained the Florentine populace in the spacious Piazza Santa Croce. There the participants, twenty-seven on a side, took their places in symmetrical ranks; the forwards in three files of five each, behind them the five defensive backs, the four half backs, and the three full backs. Writing in 1580, Giovanni dé Bardi recommended that the game be played in the principal square of the city, where "the noble ladies and the people may the better be able to behold" the "honoured soldiers, gentlemen, seigneurs and princes." *Calcio* in its day possessed much of the pageantry which makes football a regal spectacle in the twentieth century.



184 Great hurt, by Foot-ball play. The Anatomie

Foot-ball a freendly kind of fight.

wickednes and ſin. for as concerning football playing, I proteſt vnto you it may rather be called a freendly kinde of fight, then a play or recreation; A bloody and murthering practiſe, then a felowly ſporte

[* P 6, back. A.] or paſtime. [1]For dooth not euery one lye in waight for his Aduerſarie, ſeeking to ouerthrowe him & to picke him on his noſe, though it be vppon hard ſtones? in ditch or dale, in valley or hil, or what place ſoeuer it be, hee careth not, ſo he[2] haue him down. And he that can ſerue the moſt of this faſhion, he is counted the only felow,

Hurt by foot-ball playing.

and who but he? ſo that by this meanes, ſomtimes their necks are broken, [3]ſometimes their backs,[3] ſometime their legs, ſometime their

[* leaf 120, back. B.] armes; [4]ſometime one part thurſt out of ioynt, ſometime an other; ſometime[5] the[6] noſes guſh out with blood, ſometime[5] their eyes ſtart out[7]; and ſometimes hurt in one place, ſometimes in another. But whoſoeuer eſcapeth away the beſt, goeth not ſcotfree, but is either ſore [8]wounded, craiſed[9,8] and bruſeed, ſo as he dyeth of it, or els eſcapeth very hardly.' and no meruaile, for they haue the[10] ſleights to meet one betwixt two, to daſhe him againſt the hart with their elbowes, to hit him vnder the ſhort ribbes with their griped fiſts, and with their knees to catch him vpon the hip, and to pick him on his neck, with a[11]

Foot-Ball playing a murthering Play.

hundered ſuch murdering deuices: and hereof groweth enuie, malice, rancour, cholor, hatred, diſpleaſure, enmitie, and what not els: and ſometimes fighting, brawling, contention, quarrel picking, murther, homicide, and great effuſion of blood, as experience dayly teacheth.

[* 2 sign. P 7. A.] [12]Is this murthering play, now, an exerciſe for the Sabaoth day? is this a chriſtian dealing, for one brother to mayme and hurt another, and that vpon prepenſed malice, or ſet purpoſe?-is this to do to another as[1] we would with another to doo to vs? *God make vs more careful ouer the bodyes of our Bretheren!* [13]

Reading of wicked bookes. [[14] leaf 121. B.]

[13]And as for the[15] reading of wicked Bookes, they are vtterly vnlawfull, not onely to bee read, but once to be named; & that not (onely) vpon the Sabaoth day, but alſo vppon any other day; as

[2] he maie B, E, F. [3]—[3] *not in* F.
† leaf 120, back. Great hurt by Foote-ball play. B.
[4] their B, E, F. [5] of their heads *added in* F.
[6]—[6] crushed F. [9] craised *not in* B, E. [10] the *not in* B, E, F. [11] an F.
[12] *A new chapter-heading follows in* B, E, F. Readyng of wicked bookes in Ailgna. [England. F.]
† leaf 121. Reading of wicked bookes hurtful. B. [15] the *not in* F.

533 From Philip Stubbes, *Anatomy of the Abuses in England*, edited by Frederick J. Furnivall, New Shakespeare Society, London, 1877–79

IN MEDIEVAL ENGLAND

No such amenities surrounded football in medieval England. It was a boisterous free-for-all in which no gentleman of high estate would participate. At the time that dé Bardi described the Italian game of *calcio*, Philip Stubbes was lamenting that football more nearly resembled "a friendlie kind of fyghte than a play or recreation." Ever since the days when the Danes were enemies to be feared in Britain the game had been played by groups of good-natured villagers or mobs of young men and boys in the streets of the larger towns. So popular had it become with the lower classes by the twelfth century that royal edicts and municipal ordinances attempted to suppress the evil. Not only was it disturbing the peace in London, but it was diverting the yeomanry from that attention to archery which insured defense of the realm. Despite periodic prohibitions the game continued to be a Shrovetide event, neighboring towns vigorously battling with each other to see which should drive a ball to the rival's goal line. It was chaotic sport, but sturdy plowmen and lusty youths cared not for torn jerkins and damaged shins.

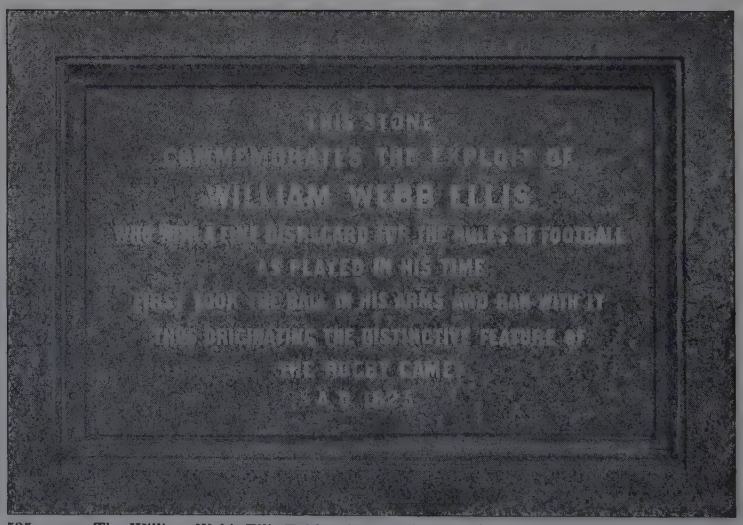
534 First Rugby Match between Eton and Harrow, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE GAME OF GOOD REPUTE

Significant among the royal pronouncements against football was that of James I, who barred the game from his court because it was "meeter for lameing than making able the user thereof." From the reference to the court one may assume that the lowly sport had begun to win devotees from the ranks of the nobility. Certainly, the grandson of King James, when he ascended the throne from which his father had been driven, looked with sympathy upon all popular diversions, even the "murthering practise" of football. During his reign order evolved slowly out of chaos. The rough-and-tumble mêlée was still seen throughout England, but at the historic schools for boys simple rules were giving form to the game which no longer was merely a pastime of the baser sort. Charterhouse, Westminster, Eton, Harrow and Rugby made football respectable, but each developed it according to local circumstances. There was no uniformity in the game which Joseph Addison played at Charterhouse and William Cowper, somewhat later, watched with keen enjoyment at Westminster. No doubt this diversity prevented the players who went up to Oxford and Cambridge during the eighteenth century from making football a recognized college sport. Not until the twentieth century did Eaton and Harrow meet at Rugby football.

AT RUGBY

Varied were the regulations under which football was played at the great English public schools, yet each institution contributed some feature to the modern American game. At Westminster was developed the idea of "off-side" play. From Eton came the tradition that eleven men should constitute a team. Everywhere kicking the ball was the means of advancing down the field and scoring goals, for "no one was allowed to run with the ball in his grasp toward the opposite goal." This generally recognized convention was first violated at Rugby. One crisp November afternoon in 1823 Old Bigside at Rugby was the scene of a furious struggle with the school divided into two teams. Dusk was beginning to fall upon the field, when William Webb Ellis, who later became a London clergyman and rector of St. Clement Dane's in the Strand, "with a fine disregard for the rules of football as played in his time took the ball in his arms and ran with it." His action threw the school into a turmoil, for he had scored a goal by violating the most important rule of the game. Denounced at first by most of his schoolmates, he lived to see the day that Rugby adopted his innovation as the basic element in the new type of football played on Old Bigside. To this development both English and American football are indebted for the addition of a running game to the earlier kicking attack.



535 The William Webb Ellis Tablet, from a photograph by George A. Dean, Rugby, England

536 Football at Yale in 1806, from an engraving, *A View of the Buildings of Yale College* by Amos Doolittle, owned by the Rev. Anson Phelps Stokes, Washington, D. C.

EARLY AMERICAN FOOTBALL

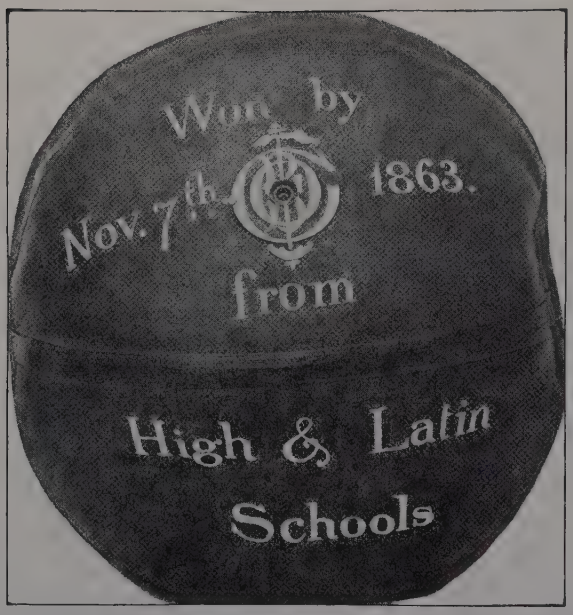
While the English public schools were developing football from what Stubbes called "a friendlie kind of fyghte" into a game of simple rules and orderly procedure, the English colonists in America were enjoying mild variations of the sport. Despite the fact that there were many well acquainted with the customary Shrovetide battles and the Scottish football games on Candlemas Day, it does not appear that such sport became one of the folkways of the early Americans. Here and there in the records of colonial days one catches glimpses of boys and young men, occasionally young women, playing a game known as football. It might more accurately have been called handball for throwing and passing the inflated bladder or sawdust filled leather seems to have been more important than kicking it. In the latter part of the eighteenth century this haphazard game assumed a place with fisticuffs, wrestling matches, and drinking bouts, enjoyed at infrequent intervals by undergraduates, as a means of relief from the severe mental discipline of college life.

INTER-CLASS CONFLICTS

Transferred from the village green and open fields to the college campus, football became merely a means to an end. It served as the medium, through which the freshman and sophomore classes gave evidence of their rivalry. As early as 1840 the inter-class game had taken definite form at Yale. The freshmen, under supervision of upper classmen, formed a huge phalanx with the ball carrier in the center. Against this formidable mass the sophomores threw their strength in an attempt to recover the ball and push, throw, or kick it over their opponent's goal line. Of the general mêlée which followed the New York *Evening Post* concluded in 1858 that if the truth were told it would "make the same impression on the public mind as a bull fight. Boys and young men knocked each other down, tore off each other's clothing. Eyes were bunged, faces blacked and bloody, and shirts and coats torn to rags." Such a class rush was a sorry travesty on the game of football as played at Eton, Rugby, and Harrow. So often did the so-called sport end in a general riot that in 1860 New Haven officials joined with the Yale authorities to abolish it. At Harvard in the same year a faculty edict barred the game, whereupon the students with mock solemnity staged an elaborate funeral for "Football Fightum." An eloquent eulogy was read at the burial and as the ball was interred the chorus chanted,

"Beneath this sod we lay you down,
This sign of glorious fight;
With dismal groans and yells we'll drown
Your mournful burial rite!"

537 A college football match, from an engraving after a drawing by Winslow Homer in *Harper Weekly*, August 1, 1857



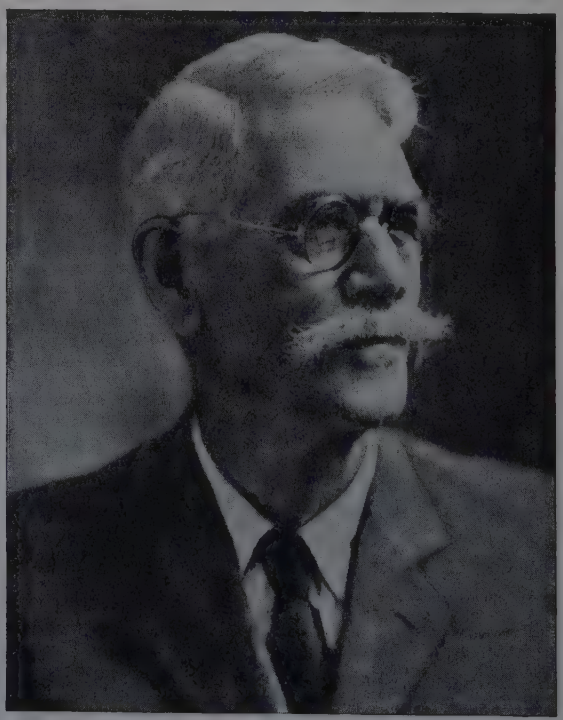
538 The rubber football won by the Oneida Club, from James D'Wolfe Lovett, *Old Boston Boys and the Games They Played*, Boston, 1906

THE ONEIDA FOOTBALL CLUB

While Harvard and Yale students were bringing football into disrepute in college circles, New England boys had introduced a measure of skill into certain features of the sport. In the autumn, even after snow covered the ground, they might be seen on vacant meadow or school ground kicking a pig's bladder which had been encased in calfskin for them by the local cobbler. Occasionally a group boasted of a store-made rubber ball which was envied by their rivals. Fifteen or twenty on a side, each team strove to drive the ball to or over the opposite fence by means of kicking, throwing, hitting, or "dribbling." Play was highly individualized and each boy longed to become proficient at "dribbling" or "puggling" the ball by tapping it forward in short bounces with his foot. He who mastered this art could sometimes zigzag down the field eluding all his opponents to score an impressive goal amidst the shouts of his team-mates. Out of these impromptu games grew a desire for organization and team play among the participants which resulted in the formation of regular teams playing stated games. Such was the Oneida Football Club, formed in 1867, which agreed to meet all comers on Boston Common.

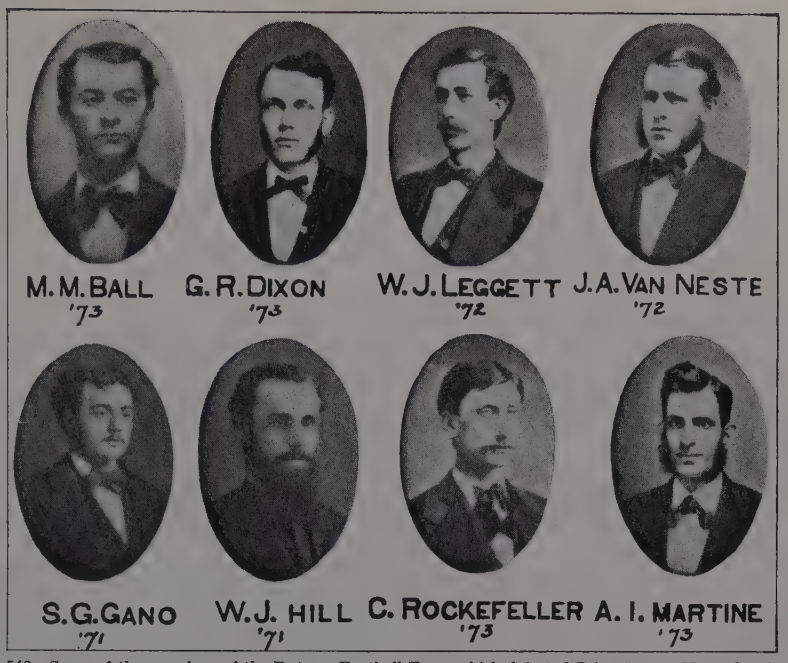
GERRIT SMITH MILLER, 1845–

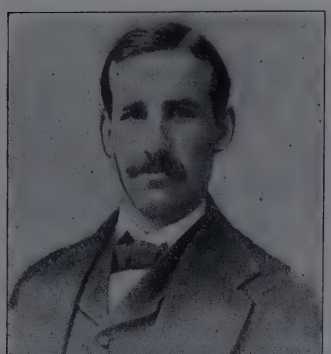
The guiding hand in the organization of the Oneida Football Club was Gerrit Smith Miller. Born at Cazenovia, New York, a grandson of Gerrit Smith, the energetic reformer and abolitionist, he showed qualities of leadership while still in grammar school. At the age of fifteen he entered the private Latin school in Boston of which Mr. Epes Sargent Dixwell was headmaster. Of rugged physique and pleasing presence young Miller soon became a general favorite. At town ball and football there were few who could surpass him. The latter game was growing ever more popular with a generation of boys who had read in *Tom Brown's School Days* the thrilling description of the contest between School-house and School at Rugby. Dixwell's School likewise had its exciting matches with the Boston Latin School. From his experience in these games Miller came to the conclusion that football would be improved if a team were composed of players trained to coöperate with each other in advancing the ball and defending the goal line. Accordingly he suggested in 1862 that a football club be formed with a nucleus of Dixwell boys and others from neighboring schools. Thus came into being the Oneida Football Club, the first organized football team in the United States. For four years it challenged school teams in Boston, never suffering a defeat. In 1923 Edward L. Arnold, Edward Bowditch, Robert M. Lawrence, Gerrit S. Miller, Francis G. Peabody, J. D'Wolfe Lovett and Winthrop S. Scudder celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of their victories with the old rubber football.



539 Gerrit Smith Miller, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

THE FIRST INTER-COLLEGIATE FOOTBALL MATCH

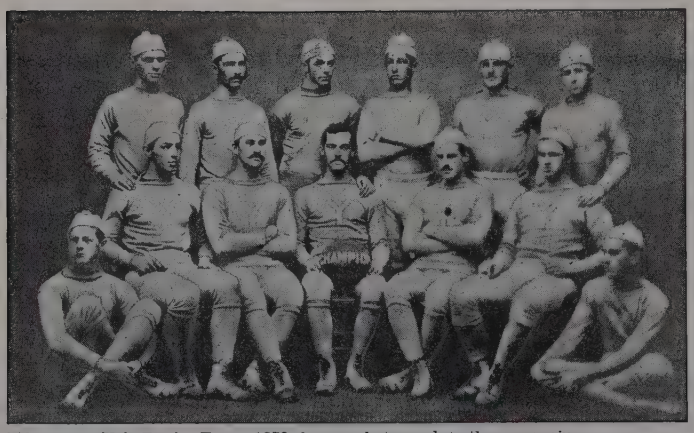
THE style of play used by the Oneida Club bore a marked resemblance to the kicking game of the English schools, known after 1863 as Association football. It barred the Rugby innovation, running with the ball, which later became the distinctive feature of the Rugby Football Union rules. Most school boys and college students in this country agreed that the long kick and short dribble were fundamental to the game, but there was such lack of uniformity in the rules that interscholastic competition was slow to develop. The first contest between college teams grew out of the long-standing rivalry between Rutgers and Princeton. For years the possession of a cannon used in the Revolution had been the bone of contention, but in 1869 William Leggett for Rutgers and William Gummere for Princeton agreed that a football match should measure the prowess of the schools, two out of three games to decide. There was little formality connected with the contests. Fifty players, twenty-five on each side, attended by a few hundred partisans met at the appointed field, stripped off their coats and vests and were ready for the fray. The red turbans of the Rutgers men supplied a touch of color and the only semblance of a uniform on the field. Each team stationed its men in the same fashion; two "captains of the enemy's goal" stood near the opposing goal line, ten "fielders" were commissioned to defend the area within thirty yards of their own goal, while the remaining players, known as "bull dogs," followed the ball up and down the field. The ball was "bucked" or kicked-off in a manner similar to that of today. Princeton, suffering the disadvantage of playing its first game under new rules, failed to solve the Rutgers system of short kicks and dribbling. In the second game, however, the long accurate kicks of the men from Nassau Hall scored eight goals and kept their own inviolate. The third and deciding contest aroused such interest on both campuses that faculty intervention was deemed necessary to preserve the peace and prevent bodily injury to participants. Commenting upon this initial venture in intercollegiate football the *Princeton Tarquin* pointed out material differences in the style of play at the two colleges: "a fly, or first bound, catch entitles to a free kick at Princeton. We bat with hands, feet, head, sideways, backward, anyway to get the ball along. We must say that we think our style much more exciting, and more as football should be."

540 Some of the members of the Rutgers Football Team which defeated Princeton on November 6, 1869, from photographs, courtesy of Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J.



541 David Schley Schaff, from a photograph, courtesy of Dr. Schaff, Washington, D. C.

"RESURGAT"

WHEN Harvard buried "Football Fightum" in 1860 the last line of the epitaph was "Resurgat." Arise it did on April 21, 1872, when the sophomores, reverting to former customs, put the Freshmen in their place by defeating them in a football game on Boston Common. In the autumn of the same year William Schley Schaff interested his classmates at Yale in the game, which he had learned at Rugby. Though the New Haven authorities would not relent in the matter of playing on the "Green," the members of the newly-formed football association found a field at some distance from the campus where they tried out their own modifications of the British Association game. Their first opponents, disposed of without great difficulty, were from Columbia College, which for several years had been practicing the style of play revealed by Princeton and Rutgers in their early matches.

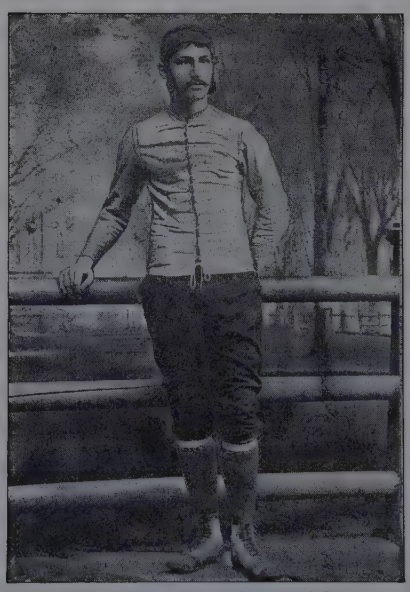


542 Yale Rugby Team, 1876, from a photograph in the gymnasium of Yale University

THE APPEARANCE OF RUGBY

"The McGill University Football Club will meet the Harvard Club on Jarvis Field, Wednesday and Thursday, May 14 and 15. The game probably will be called at three o'clock. Admittance 50 cents. The proceeds will be devoted to the entertainment of our visitors from Montreal." Thus ran the notice in the Harvard *Magenta* in 1874, announcing the appearance of the first Rugby football team in this country. Of the two games scheduled the first was played under the regulations then recognized at Cambridge, while the second introduced the Harvard players to the novel features worked out by English schoolboys and standardized in the Rugby Union Code. The new game made a distinctly favorable impression. The editor of *Magenta* thought that it was much better than the "somewhat sleepy game now played by our men." In 1875 Yale agreed to meet Harvard under "concessionary rules" based on the Rugby code. From the Princeton football association came an invitation to Columbia, Harvard, and Yale to meet them in a convention at Springfield, Massachusetts. When the delegates from the four colleges assembled, they succeeded in forming an intercollegiate football association, in adopting the Rugby Union rules as the basis of American football, and in scheduling a series of games. In one respect only did the negotiators of 1876 alter the English game. To emphasize running with the ball they modified the English method of scoring to make four rather than six touchdowns equal to a goal.

543 Harvard's First Rugby Football Team, from a drawing, 1875, after a photograph, in *The Illustrated Sporting News*, November 12, 1904



544 Walter Camp, from a photograph by Phelps, New Haven

WALTER C. CAMP, 1859–1925

When Eugene V. Baker, captain of the Yale football squad in 1876, issued an appeal for candidates to try out for the first team to play under the new intercollegiate rules, an unusually large number of undergraduates responded. Among them was a sturdy youth from New Haven, who had won the admiration of his companions at Hopkins Grammar School by his versatile ability as an athlete. Within a few days he had been selected by Captain Baker as one of the team's half backs. Thus began Walter Camp's career in Yale football. Though his interest and participation were not confined to one sport, he became the great "architect of the American intercollegiate game." On the field he displayed an alertness and resourcefulness seldom equaled by his fellows; at the council table his penetrating analysis of defects and ingenious methods of correcting them were invaluable. While still a player he became a member of the rules committee in 1878, and for forty-eight years he remained an adviser of every group which revised the intercollegiate rules. With the fundamental changes which transformed Rugby from an English into an American game his name is forever associated.

FROM SCRUMMAGE TO SCRIMMAGE

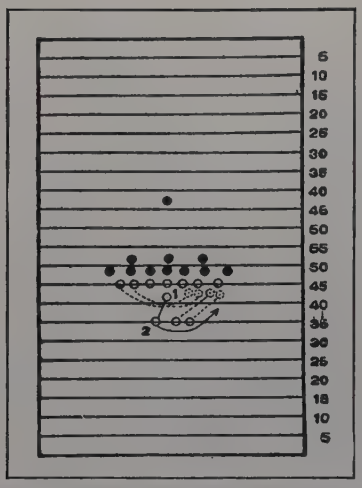
545 The Ball in Scrum, from a photograph in the Walter Camp Collection, New Haven

The intercollegiate game of Walter Camp's student days was played by teams composed of fifteen men. Eight forwards generally constituted the rush lines, while behind them four half backs and three full backs did the major part of the kicking and running necessary to advance the ball. An outstanding characteristic of the Rugby game was "scrum" or scrummage, in which the ball was placed on the ground between the two rush lines and the opposing forwards sought to work it back to their team-mates for a run, pass, or kick. At times the mass of struggling players swayed to and fro for several minutes before the ball bounded erratically into the open or was "heeled back" to a player not in the scrummage. Such a procedure gave to neither side an assured possession of the ball upon which continuous strategy might be based. Too much depended upon how the ball happened to emerge from "scrum." Walter Camp with his penetrative mind quickly perceived the possibility of improving football strategy by devising a new method of putting the ball in play. In October 1880 at the third intercollegiate football convention he persuaded the delegates to agree that the number of players on a side should be reduced from fifteen to eleven. Then he introduced a resolution calling for a more fundamental change: "A scrimmage takes place when the holder of the ball puts it on the ground before him and puts it in play while on-side either by kicking the ball or snapping it back with his foot. The man who first receives the ball from the snap-back shall be called the quarter-back." Thus the convention at Camp's suggestion and insistence created "scrimmage," the "quarter back" and the "eleven."

THE "BLOCK GAME"

It was Walter Camp's hope that, since the scrimmage insured possession of the ball to the team which put it in play, there would be a rapid development of strategic plays designed to advance the ball. This hope was not immediately realized. The device which guaranteed to one side undisputed possession of the ball contained no provision for its surrender. As a result certain clever schemers at Princeton, where many a formation was to originate later, decided that the best possible strategy was to hold on to the ball indefinitely. This policy, put into effect with a vengeance in the Yale-Princeton game of 1881, caused listlessness on the part of the players and indignation which finally became vociferous among the spectators. Princeton marked time with the ball during the first half and Yale duplicated the performance during the second, neither team gaining any ground. Some denounced the scrimmage innovation in vigorous terms but again Camp presented an ingenious solution. "If on three consecutive downs a team shall not have advanced the ball five yards, nor lost ten, they must give up the ball to opponents at the spot of the fourth down," ran the rule of 1882. In its wake came the white lines across the field at five-yard intervals which made the "gridiron."

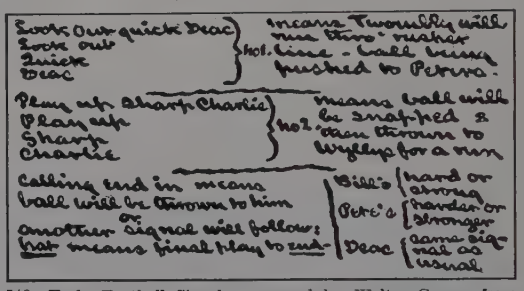
546 Line Play, from a photograph in the Walter Camp Collection, New Haven



547 Woodruff's Flying Interference, from a chart in Walter Camp, *Book of Football.* © Century Co., New York, 1910. Used by permission

DEVELOPING INTERFERENCE

The introduction of the scrimmage accelerated considerably the development of interference. Under the Rugby rules any man ahead of the ball was offside and could not take part in play. As a consequence, once the ball had been "heeled out of scrum" the whole rush line was theoretically offside. In the United States the rule was neither generally observed nor scrupulously enforced. The forwards formed a screen for the man with the ball, and in 1879 Princeton adopted the plan of "guarding" the ball carrier by sending a player at each side of him to make tackling more difficult. Five years later, despite protests that the rules were being violated, Princeton had so far developed its interference as to designate some of the backs to clear the way for the man advancing the ball. Yale at first refused to countenance the practice, but by 1890 it had joined the other colleges in accepting the merits of a powerful interference.



548 Early Football Signals, prepared by Walter Camp, from Walter Camp, *Book of Football.* © Century Co., New York, 1910. Used by permission

SIGNALS

As the change in rules made possible the evolution of new tactics and new formations, signals to designate the various plays became essential. At first the quarter back used short sentences containing "key" words and phrases to indicate his plan of campaign to his team mates. "Ready there, Henry!" might mean that the left half back would circle the right end; "Look out, now, Deac" gave the full back the information that he was to plunge through the center of the rush line. In 1885 Yale set the custom of using numerical signals, which within a few years had developed into such intricate mathematical formulas as almost to defeat their purpose.

THE YALE–PRINCETON GAME OF 1884

Football in the early 'eighties was an open game. The line played far-flung across the field, while the backs were normally stationed at a considerable distance behind and to the side of the quarter back, receiving the ball on a lateral pass. Tackling below the waist was not permitted. The broken field runner might expect an avalanche of players on his neck, many of them interested in getting the ball from his grasp. That the game was not free from violence was attested by the agreement in 1889 of the captains of Harvard, Princeton, Pennsylvania, Wesleyan and Yale that they would discourage slugging and unnecessary roughness. We may assume, however, that the following description of the Yale-Princeton game of 1884 was colored by the lively imagination of the reporter for the *New York Evening Post:* "The spectators could see the elevens hurl themselves together and build themselves in kicking, writhing heaps. They had a general vision of threatening attitudes, fists shaken before noses, dartings hither and thither, throttling, wrestling and the pitching of individuals headlong to earth; and all this was an exceedingly animated picture which drew from them volley after volley of applause. Those inside the lines, the judges, reporters and so on, were nearer and saw something more. They saw real fighting, savage blows that drew blood, and falls that seemed as if they must crack all the bones and drive the life from those who sustained them." The rough-and-tumble fight of the frontier had in this writer's opinion been transferred on a large scale to the gridiron.

549 The Rough and Tumble Methods of Early Football, from a drawing by A. B. Frost in *Harper's Weekly,* December 20, 1879

CHANGES IN TACKLING

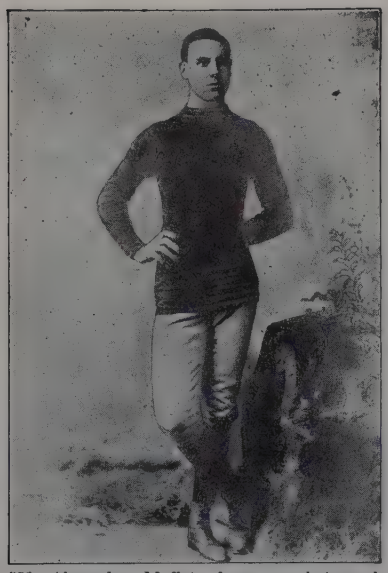
The football convention of 1888 decided after considerable urging from Walter Camp to permit tackling below the waist line. Under the Rugby system a heavy runner could carry the tackler along with him for additional yardage. Interested in encouraging more accurate tackling and in strengthening the defense, the proponents of the new rule regarded it of minor importance. Great was their surprise to discover that its real effect on the gridiron was to revolutionize formations and to doom the open style of play. A strengthened defense called for a more powerful offense. Lateral passes, wide end runs, and shifty dodging in the open field disappeared. On the offensive the scrimmage line became compact. The backs played close behind it. Heavy interference, which carried all before it, became characteristic of football after the introduction of the low tackle. The "veterans" of earlier days mourned the passing of the open game.

550 The high tackle, in the Walter Camp Collection, New Haven

MASS TACTICS

Many were the tactical devices invented to utilize weight and momentum. In the late 'eighties Lehigh and Princeton formed the rush line in an inverted V-shaped wedge with the ball carrier protected behind the compact human walls. Instead of the long kick-off, the wedge was used to rush the ball on the opening play deep into enemy territory. It was given even greater force in 1892 when Lorin F. Deland at Harvard, a master of mass formations, separated the two sides of the wedge and then joined them on the run, thus adding momentum and concealing until the last moment the exact point of attack. At Harvard, likewise, originated the "turtle-back," which piled up the offense in a solid oval against the opposing tackle and then unrolled slowly to shake the runner loose into a clear field. George Woodruff at Pennsylvania built his attack around the guards, pulling them back out of the rush line and then using them in tandem formation to clear the way for the ball carrier. Variations of the same principle appeared at Princeton and other eastern colleges in the famous "tackle tandem." It was bruising, sometimes brutal, sport and frequently dull for those who watched from the side lines and saw few plays distinctly. Deception played relatively little part. Weight and momentum were all important, some coaches boasting that their attacks were irresistible even if the opposition knew exactly where to expect the thrust. The strategist most interested in defensive tactics was Camp, some of his ingenious methods of stopping the mass plays being copied by coaches wherever college football was played. Of the mass formations he wrote: "Openings for mass plays are not made until the push part of the play has lost its force. . . . Progress is all that is wanted, and the line men in front of the mass should stick shoulder to shoulder, until they find themselves brought almost to a standstill. Then, with a final effort, they tear themselves apart, carrying a break into the opposing wall through which the runner, with the added push he is receiving from behind and from the sides slips, and may at times be able to strike out for himself." — W. C. Camp and L. F. Deland, *Football.*

551 From the sculpture *The Onslaught* by R. Tait McKenzie, courtesy of the artist



552 Alexander Moffat, from a photograph, courtesy of Dr. Charles Kennedy, Princeton University

REFORMS

As football assumed a more prominent place in campus activities it was scrutinized with greater care by faculties, trustees and others interested in scholastic affairs. They found much that needed correction. Football teams in some institutions were losing their amateur character, if, indeed, they had ever been worthy of non-professional status. In eastern universities the graduate and professional schools enabled star players to prolong their career on the gridiron for several years beyond their attainment of the baccalaureate degree. Flying wedges and momentum plays had brutalized a sport always characterized by rough tactics. In the attempt to meet these criticisms the old Intercollegiate Football Association broke down. Yale, Princeton and Annapolis parted company from Harvard, Pennsylvania and Cornell; West Point and later Annapolis abandoned the game entirely. In the midst of the popular furore Walter Camp, ably supported by Alexander Moffat of Princeton, secured the creation of a National Rules Committee, which promptly outlined a program of reforms. Teams were to be limited to *bona-fide* undergraduates; the worst features of the mass tactics were eliminated; and the control of the sport by the Rules Committee was specifically affirmed.

THE THANKSGIVING DAY GAME

The excitement over football's present worth and future prospects did not much trouble the undergraduates intent on cheering for a winning team. They had begun to surround the contests of their "gridiron gladiators" with an atmosphere of complete abandon to primitive impulses. They gloried in the hand-to-hand struggle of the opposing rush lines, in the bodily impact of runner and tackler, in the crushing force of mass interference. Their own contribution was a riot of noise and color calculated to inspire the team for which they shouted. The climax of the season in the East was generally the Thanksgiving Day game in New York between the elevens from Yale and Princeton. "The collegians begin to arrive in town on Wednesday," wrote a reporter in 1893, "and one sees nothing but young men now enveloped in huge great coats and ulsters with yellow shoes and canes wrapped in ribbons. Everything on four wheels that will hold twenty men on its top in the city goes up Fifth Avenue on Thursday morning. It is like a circus procession that begins at ten in front of the Fifth Avenue and Brunswick hotels and moves continuously for three hours or more. Everything from the newest English break to ancient omnibuses all draped from tip to hub with festooned colors, is in the parade. The boots of the better breaks are apt to be stocked with bourbon whiskey, vintage champagnes, sandwiches, whole cold salmon, roast chicken in jelly, for it is a long ride and the day is brisk. . . . It is interesting to note how systematically the cheering is given, how it is timed to destroy the effect of the rival cheering, and that certain men are selected to lead and give the time for these yells, something in the fashion of an orchestra leader."

553 Football team starting for the Polo Grounds, from a drawing in Walter Camp, *Book of Football*. © Century Co., New York, 1910. Used by permission

554 Football team, 1898, at the University of Wisconsin, from a photograph, courtesy of the University of Wisconsin *Sport News*

FOOTBALL GOES INTO THE WEST

For a quarter century after the Civil War intercollegiate football was virtually confined to the larger institutions of the East. Yale, Harvard, Princeton, and Pennsylvania dominated the periodic conventions of those interested in the sport. Variations of the Rugby and Association games persisted in the smaller colleges and academies of the country, with a multiplicity of rules which made interscholastic competition difficult. In the decade after 1880 Richard Harding Davis aroused enough enthusiasm at Lehigh to inaugurate the annual clash with Lafayette. At the same time Dartmouth students invited the Yale team to teach them the game, and in the first encounter they learned fundamentals by losing 113 to 0. West of the Alleghenies there were few rivals for Michigan to meet. In 1879 its first intercollegiate contest was staged at White Stocking Park, Chicago, with Racine College, but two years later the Wolverines invaded the East in search of worthy foes. Within a week's time they played Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, losing each game by a small margin. Thereafter they found increasing competition in their own section as Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, and other state universities followed the lead of the eastern colleges.

555 Amos Alonzo Stagg, 1862–, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

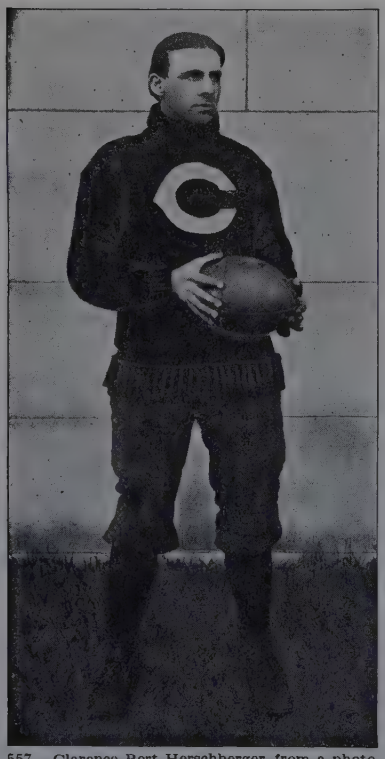
AMOS ALONZO STAGG

Not the least of President Harper's contributions to the building of the University of Chicago was his appointment of a young Yale graduate, Amos Alonzo Stagg, to become coach of football and director of athletics with professorial status. It was a novel arrangement, since college authorities generally exercised little control over athletics at that time and football coaches were not usually placed in the same category with professors. But President Harper did not mistake his man. Since 1891 Stagg has exemplified not only for his own school, but for the whole Middle West, the attributes of true sportsmanship. Discouraged from entering the ministry because of his inability to speak fluently, he carried into his athletic work high standards which have never been lowered to satisfy undergraduates or alumni clamoring for any policy that will assure winning teams. To Chicago he has been something more than a master strategist possessed of an uncanny ability to devise ingenious formations and trick plays. Despite conditions which were often far from favorable, he has kept a "flag of idealism flying, with its spirit of rules kept, and regard for the adversary whether the fight is going for or against him."

556 President James Smart of Purdue University, from a photograph, courtesy of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

THE WESTERN CONFERENCE

When Coach Stagg began his work at Chicago, western football presented in an aggravated form many of the evils which had developed in the East. Eligibility rules were few and seldom enforced. "Amateur status," was little more than a pious expression. The "tramp athlete" or "ringer," who donned a uniform for the football season in expectation of some remuneration, was a familiar figure on the college campus. He normally found scholastic work uninteresting after the gridiron season had passed. In 1893 seven members of the Michigan squad were not even enrolled as students at the University, a situation not peculiar to Ann Arbor. Two years later at the call of President Smart of Purdue the presidents of seven middle western colleges conferred on the possibility of correcting the most flagrant athletic evils. As a result of the presidential discussions, representatives of Chicago, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Northwestern, Purdue, and Wisconsin formed the Western Intercollegiate Conference on February 8, 1896. Its first rules sought to clarify the meaning of "amateur status," to banish the "tramp athlete," to standardize eligibility rules and to insure faculty representation upon the university committees in charge of athletic activities. In 1899 Iowa and Indiana qualified for admission to the Conference, and in 1912 Ohio State completed the "Big Ten." Though its initial regulations were full of loopholes, it speedily became an effective organization to set and enforce athletic standards not only among its members but also by the force of its example and influence among lesser associations throughout the nation.



557 Clarence Bert Herschberger, from a photograph, courtesy of Alonzo Stagg, University of Chicago

AT CHICAGO

Before the Western Conference was ten years old its football teams had earned a reputation equal to that of the best elevens in the East. Much of the credit for this high standard of gridiron performance went to Coach Stagg. His teams always displayed an offensive in which deception was as important a factor as power. His use of the long punt as a weapon of defense was widely followed. When close formations still represented the conventional method of ground gaining, he relied less upon "push and pull" plays than on a varied running attack which struck where his opponent least expected it. Under his tutelage Herschberger, Maxwell, Eckersall, and Steffen became as well known to the followers of the game as Corbin, Poe and Hinkey in the East.

558 Walter Steffen, from a photograph, courtesy of Alonzo Stagg, University of Chicago

FIELDING H. YOST

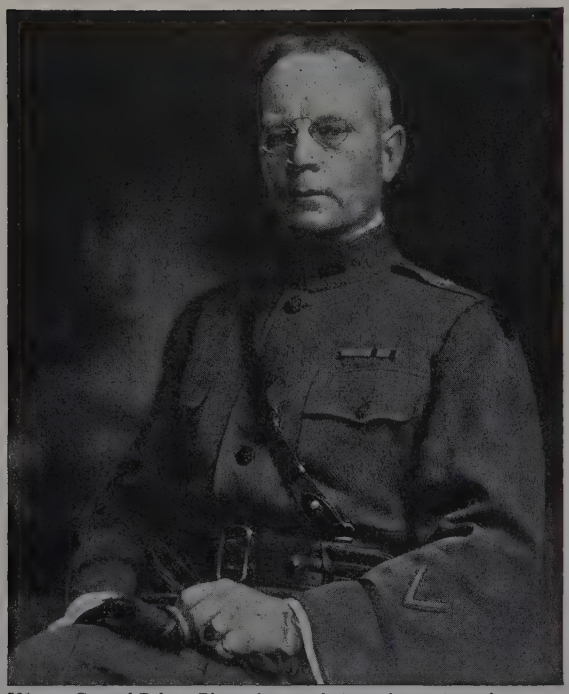
559 Fielding H. Yost, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

One of Chicago's greatest rivals in the West was the University of Michigan, which experienced a "football revival" under the ministrations of Fielding H. Yost. In his college days Yost had played tackle at the University of West Virginia and later at Lafayette, where he came under the influence of an enthusiastic teacher of gridiron tactics, Parke H. Davis. His early coaching carried him steadily westward to Ohio Wesleyan, the University of Nebraska, the University of Kansas, and Leland Stanford. In 1901 he returned from the west coast to accept the coaching position at Ann Arbor. With him came "Willie" Heston, who enrolled as a freshman and promptly became an important member of Michigan's most famous football team. The eleven of 1901, which marked Yost's début in Conference football, played a schedule of eleven games including a post-season trip to California in order to meet Leland Stanford. It won every game, amassing five hundred and fifty points against such opponents as Carlisle, Chicago, Northwestern, Indiana, and Iowa. Its own goal line was not crossed during the season. During the next five years "Hurry-Up" Yost became nationally known as the zealous creator of "point-a-minute" teams, which were inspired by his own devotion to the gridiron game. Less widely heralded, but more significant, was his later endeavor to increase the number of Michigan undergraduates participating in some form of athletic sports.

THE CARLISLE INDIANS

While Yost was playing tackle on Lafayette teams, a young graduate from Cornell, who had made a reputation as a versatile linesman, was beginning his coaching career in the South. Glenn S. Warner first tested his ability as a gridiron strategist at the University of Georgia in 1895. So successful were his teams that he was called back to Ithaca to devise new variations of the mass play for his Alma Mater. These were years of preparation, for his outstanding work in the theory of football began with his appointment as football coach at the Carlisle Indian School in 1899. There he displayed a willingness to experiment with new methods, which made him one of the "progressive" coaches of his day. His teams drew crowds wherever they appeared, not only because the spectators were curious to see American Indians as helmeted football warriors, but also because they knew that Warner's elevens were apt to present sensational variations of routine formations. Difficult to coach, erratic in their important games, the Carlisle Indians blazed new trails. They early showed the possibilities of the line shift; they were pioneers in the use of the forward pass. When "Jim" Thorpe was in the backfield their triple-threat formations were feared by every foe they faced. Even if Warner had nothing else to his credit in football, his discovery and training of the versatile Thorpe would stand as a dramatic episode in the history of the game.

560 A Carlisle Indian Football Team, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers



561 General Palmer Pierce, from a photograph, courtesy of General Pierce

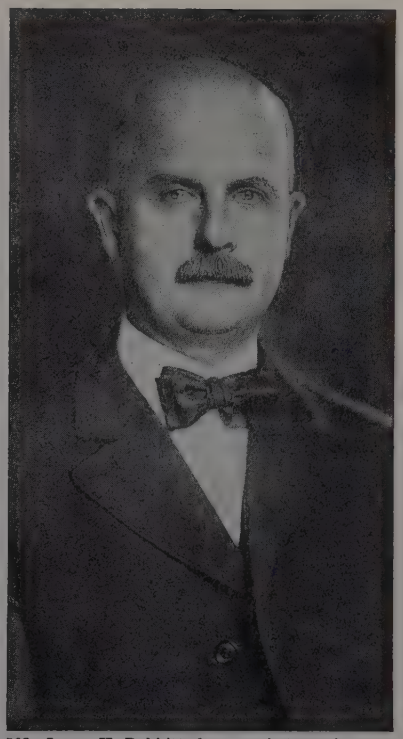
THE REVOLUTION OF 1906

DURING the first five years of the twentieth century football was on the defensive. Publicists branded the sport as too brutal for popular approval. Statistics were compiled to prove that the toll in deaths and injuries was disproportionately great in comparison with the physical benefits derived by the majority of players. Sports writers branded the tactics devised on the basis of close formations as slow and uninteresting. Colleges in the South and West chafed under the system which admitted only Cornell, Chicago, Harvard, Navy, Pennsylvania, Princeton, and Yale to the game's legislative council. With dramatic effect the *Chicago Tribune* reviewed the season of 1905 in which eighteen college and secondary school students had been killed and one hundred and fifty-nine injured. Columbia University announced its intention to abandon intercollegiate football. As a climax President Roosevelt summoned to the White House representatives of Harvard, Yale and Princeton and emphasized in his characteristic fashion the "public interest" which demanded that the sport be freed from brutality and foul play. With criticism rampant the Rules Committee also faced revolt. Twenty-eight colleges, all, except Harvard, at the moment without a voice in the formulation of rules, organized a "conference committee" to control the sport. Confronted by this schism the old "intercollegiate committee" turned to Walter Camp. In coöperation with Captain Palmer E. Pierce of the Army, who represented the new group, he secured in 1906 the creation of a football tribunal consisting of the members of both committees, under the name of the American Football Rules Committee. Its first concern was to make possible a more open style of play. To this end the distance to be gained in three downs was changed from five yards to ten. Two offensive weapons were given the attacking team — the forward pass and the on-side kick. The former, however, was carefully restricted by the provision that the pass must cross the line of scrimmage at least five yards to the right or left of the point where the ball was put in play. Coincident with these revolutionary changes in rules came drastic revisions of the regulations governing eligibility. In this the Western Conference led the way by imposing the three-year rule on all its football representatives while the "Big Three" in the East barred freshmen from intercollegiate competition and demanded one year's residence in the case of students transferring from other institutions. Thus the path of the "tramp athlete" was further strewn with obstacles.

562 Walter Camp, from the portrait by George M. Reeve in the Crescent Athletic Club, Brooklyn

OFFICIALS

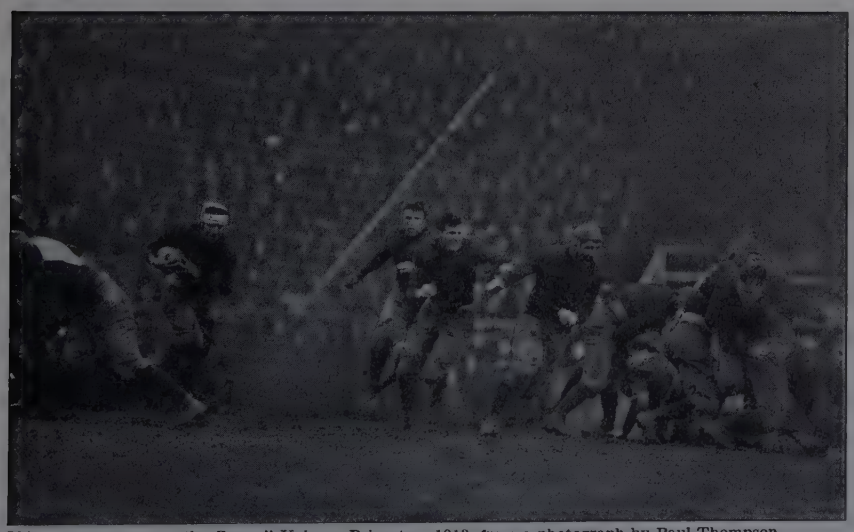
Having altered the laws of the game, the Rules Committee next turned its attention to the body of officials upon whom rested the responsibility of enforcing the new code. With the adoption of the modified Rugby game in 1876 a plan had been devised whereby the captain of each team named a judge to represent his interests in each contest. The two judges were expected to coöperate with a referee who made the final decisions. Placed in the rôle of special pleaders, the judges soon developed into nuisances, delaying the game with lengthy arguments addressed to the referee to influence his rulings. In 1885 the judges were dropped from the list of officials and for several years one man bore the arduous burden of officiating. Then an umpire was added in 1888 and six years later a linesman. Selection of officials was a problem of major concern, especially when contests involved rivals of long standing. To obviate some of the politics and reprehensible practices Walter Camp persuaded the Rules Committee in 1906 to create the Central Board on Officials, which has become, under the leadership of Dr. James H. Babbitt, a powerful factor in removing much of the irritation that led to bitterness and an agency able to assign competent and impartial officials to important games.



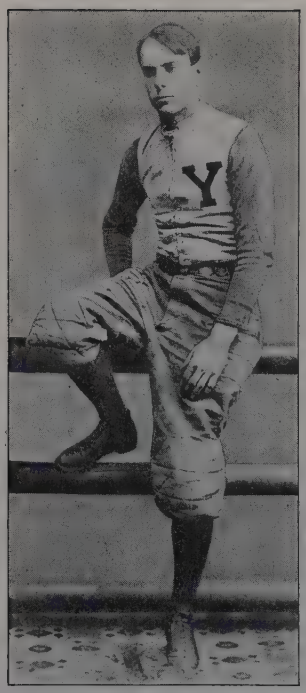
563 James H. Babbitt, from a photograph, courtesy of Edward K. Hall, New York

THE "NEW FOOTBALL"

The football legislators of 1906 expected that the "revolutionary" changes in the rules would banish mass plays from the gridiron. They foresaw an open game in which wide end runs and numerous passes would be used to gain the necessary ten yards. Actually, there was no sudden transformation in the style of play. Teams in the East, particularly, relied upon force in the rush line as the essential element in their plans of attack. Gone were the flying and revolving wedges, the smashing tackle tandems, and the spectacular but dangerous hurdle plays. In their place, however, came powerful line thrusts protected by an interlocked wall of interference. The forward pass was regarded as a trick play, not as an integral part of a team's offensive strategy. There was still a heavy premium upon weight and brawn. Convinced that its work had been nullified by developments on the gridiron the Rules Committee in 1910 banished mass plays forever. Interlocking interference was forbidden; the "push and pull" plays were specifically declared illegal; seven men must at all times be on the offensive scrimmage line. On the positive side encouragement was given to the running and passing game. Any backfield man might take the ball for line plunge or end run on a direct pass from the center. The forward pass could cross the line of scrimmage at any point if the passer was at least ten yards behind the forwards. Unlimited substitution of players, formerly carefully restricted, was permitted. To observers of many a contest the changes were bewildering. As they watched the open style of play slowly develop they found that they were learning a new game.



564 "Opening up the Game," Yale vs. Princeton, 1913, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York



565 Frank Hinkey, from a photograph, courtesy of the Yale Athletic Association

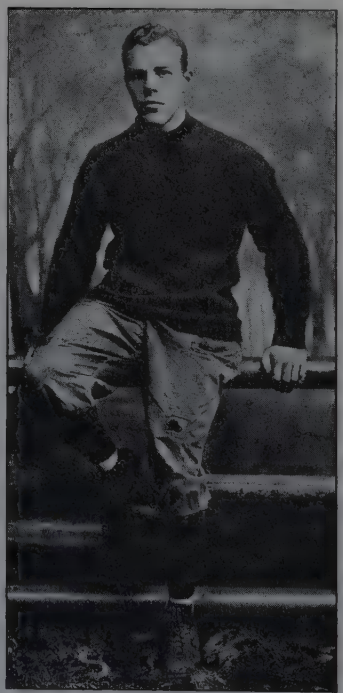
THE "ALL-AMERICA" TEAMS

As the changes in rules culminating in 1910 marked an obvious point of division between the "old" and the "new" games, it was perhaps fitting that Walter Camp chose that year to name his "All-time All-America" team. For more than twenty years football enthusiasts had delighted in his selection of the outstanding players of each season, grouped into an eleven which he considered invincible. The first "All-America" had appeared in the columns of a sporting journal in 1889 and had become a regular feature of *Collier's Weekly* in subsequent years. In the personnel of the various teams the development of football as a sectional intercollegiate game is well told. For ten years the gridiron heroes were drawn from five eastern schools — Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Pennsylvania, and Cornell. Then Herschberger of Chicago broke into the charmed circle and recognition came to the teams of the West and South. The 1924 group, the last which Camp named, represented eleven different institutions, six in the East and five in the West.

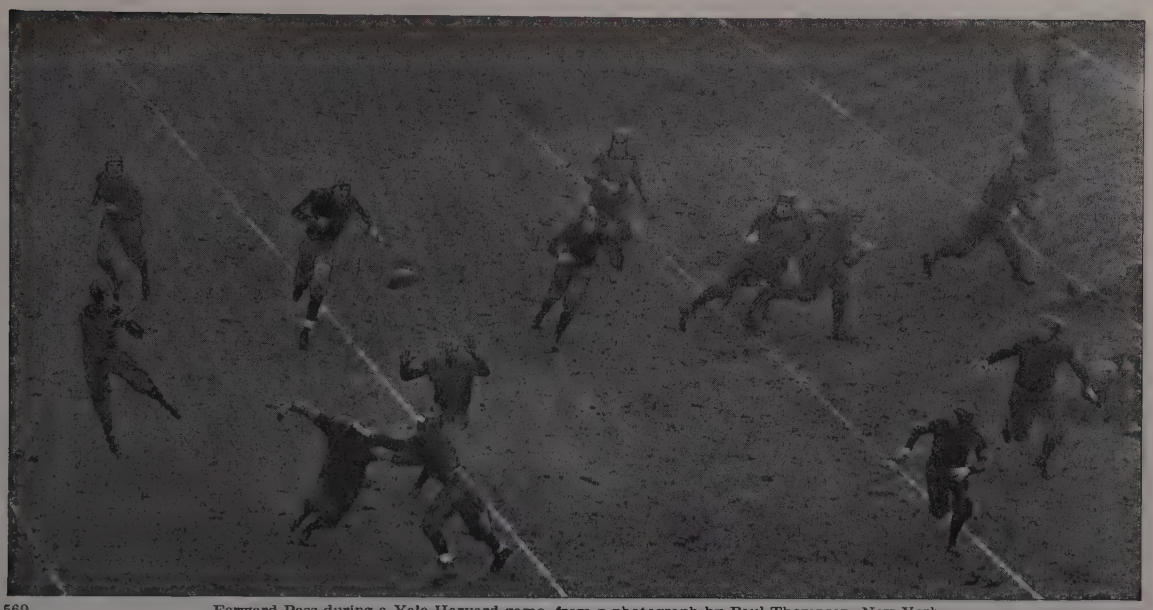
566 Tom Shevlin, from a photograph, courtesy of the Yale Athletic Association

Consider the "All-time" eleven of 1910. At the ends are indomitable Frank Hinkey of Yale, never missing his man, and swashbuckling Tom Shevlin, also of Yale, able by his enormous bulk to spill interference and ball carrier as well. Towering in the tackle positions are Hamilton Fish, Jr., of Harvard, with a charge like the "recoil of a steel spring" and John De Witt of Princeton, a born leader inspiring the whole line. For stalwart guards there are "Pudge" Heffelfinger of Yale, big of frame but quick of foot, and Truxton Hare of Pennsylvania, equally mighty on offense and defense. Between them is "Germany" Schultz, Michigan's center rush, who can cut a veritable swath through the center of the opposing forwards. Behind that wall of surpassing strength Walter Eckersall, of Chicago, supplies the necessary speed and the strategy of an able field general. His clarion calling of the signals sends Harold Weekes of Columbia on one of his flashy end runs or spectacular hurdles over the enemy line. Paired with Weekes is Martin Heston of Michigan, straight-arming his way through a broken field with incredible ease. Finally there is Ted Coy of Yale, able to nullify the efforts of tacklers by the devastating action of his high-flung knees. The selection of an "All-American" team was difficult when Walter Camp named the first one: it is well-nigh impossible today, when no man can see all of the star players in action, or more than a few teams at the same stage in their development.

567 Harold Weekes, from a photograph, courtesy of the Columbia Athletic Association



568 Ted Coy, from a photograph, courtesy of the Yale Athletic Association



569 Forward Pass during a Yale-Harvard game, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE FORWARD PASS

More than any other factor the forward pass enabled light and speedy teams to meet heavier and brawnier elevens on terms of substantial equality. Its possibilities were but slowly exploited in the East, though coaches in the Western Conference, like Williams, Stagg and Yost, were constantly experimenting with new forms of strategy built around the pass as an offensive weapon. Such eastern schools as used it relied consistently upon a high, punt-like pass from kick formation which was quickly diagnosed and easily broken up by the defense. Because of the possibility of interception, many came to regard it as a dangerous device to be tried only as a surprise play for scoring purposes. In 1913 a Notre Dame team came East to play the Army. It was an exciting afternoon at West Point, for Dorais, Eichenlaub and Rockne proceeded to overwhelm the soldiers with a variety of passes thrown from a bewildering diversity of formations. The Army was quick to profit from the disaster. When it met the Navy for the concluding game of the season three cadets, Prichard, Merrilat, and Markoe, showed the midshipmen that an eastern team could execute with finesse the western passing game. From that day the East reluctantly admitted that it had not freely exploited the forward pass and modified its offensive strategy in the light of impressive experience.

570 Harry L. Williams, from a photograph, courtesy of the Athletic Association of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

THE MINNESOTA SHIFT

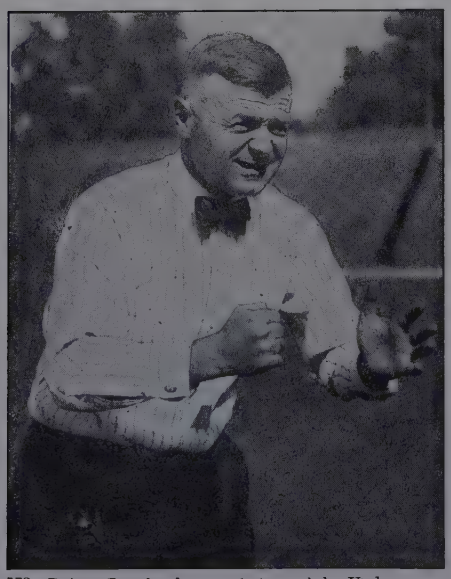
At Minnesota, Dr. Harry L. Williams, one of the early advocates of the forward pass, worked out an effective attack based upon a combination of a passing and line plunging offense. Using a peculiar line shift similar to that which Glenn S. Warner had introduced at Carlisle, his teams tore through the opposing forwards, who failed to meet the concentrated pressure at the proper point. Invariably the defensive team was compelled to move up its backfield to the support of the line, thus giving the offense greater opportunity to complete its forward passes. As the shift developed under Daly at West Point and Heisman at Georgia School of Technology, it became in reality a momentum play which violated the spirit, if not the letter, of the rules against such formations. Consequently it was hedged about with restrictions until its effectiveness was considerably diminished, though many coaches continued to find it valuable when proper timing was secured.

571 Percy Haughton, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THE HAUGHTON SYSTEM

The supremacy of Yale in eastern football prior to 1910 was high tribute to the leadership of Walter Camp. For more than a quarter century his counsel had been of commanding influence at New Haven. Then, at the moment that Camp's voice was less frequently heard in football councils, there appeared as coach at Harvard the man destined to humble Yale's pretensions to invincibility. Percy D. Haughton was not a stranger in Cambridge. Entering college from Groton in 1895, he had earned fame on both the gridiron and the diamond. Always a student of football he returned to his Alma Mater as head coach in 1908, assured of complete freedom in establishing his system of training. Though some charged him with being an unreasonable martinet even his critics admitted his gift of imagination and his ability to inspire men. To Haughton fundamentals were of supreme importance. Probably no coach ever drove his men harder at the tackling dummy. The alphabet of football was mastered by his protegés before they were introduced to the higher learning of deceptive "hidden ball" plays, carefully screened lateral passes, and intricate forward pass formations. His program met the pragmatic test. It produced smoothly functioning teams. Brickley, Mahan, Pennock, Hardwick, great in their own right, were not superior to the teams on which they played. After leaving Harvard for a business career, Haughton returned to the gridiron at Columbia, where his driving energy and inspiring leadership gave promise of new triumphs unrealized at the time of his sudden death in 1924. Of his work at Columbia President Nicholas Murray Butler has written: "He brought with him the hope, the confidence and the good cheer which are the outgrowths of a sincere personality. He had ideas and high standards and he not only taught these ideas and preached these standards, but he illustrated them in his daily life and walk and in his intimate contacts with the young men who trooped around him for encouragement, instruction and training."

572 Haughton begins his spring training at Columbia, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York



573 Robert Zuppke, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

ROBERT C. ZUPPKE

In the autumn of 1901, when the mass play was still in good repute and Yost was preparing his "point-a-minute" teams at Ann Arbor, a small but determined candidate reported for football practice at the University of Wisconsin. For three years he haunted the field, playing any position on the "scrubs" that was assigned to him, constantly hoping that his spirit might compensate for his slight physique. He never earned a place in the varsity backfield but his associates did not forget his skill as a football strategist. After graduation Robert C. Zuppke could not resist the lure of the gridiron. Seven successful years he spent preparing high school teams for championship honors, and then came the call from the University of Illinois. In 1913 Zuppke undertook to install a new style of play at Urbana. His success was instant, the team of 1914 winning every game in a sensational season.

A MASTER STRATEGIST

574 Zuppke instructing Illinois football men, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood

WHILE Stagg at Chicago and Smith at Purdue were becoming painfully aware of the presence of a new force in conference football, the fame of Zuppke had gone far afield. He was heralded in all parts of the country as one of the greatest students of strategy that the gridiron game had produced. His admirers pointed to his development in 1906 of the screen pass, now illegal, his use of the guards as protectors for the forward passer, his introduction of the spiral pass from center to backfield in order to speed up the attack, and his perfection in 1921 of the huddle formation for calling signals. To Coach Zuppke also belongs the credit for devising many strategems which have improved both offensive and defensive tactics. Within recent years few coaches have had so pervasive an influence upon the theory and practice of the game. The summer school at Illinois enables him to explain his ideas to coaches from all parts of the country, who become in turn missionaries to spread the evangel of scientific football in their respective schools.

575 Centre College Team, 1919, from a photograph, courtesy of Centre College

THE RISE OF THE SMALL COLLEGE

TIME was when the college with a small enrollment of undergraduates never expected to triumph over a larger school. It sent its teams annually to meet the "big" elevens of neighboring colleges with the understanding that its place on the schedule was assured so long as it offered a "practice game" and an easy victory for its opponent. Since 1910, however, the test of size has become less conclusive. With increasing frequency the team from a small and comparatively unknown institution has risen to defeat its apparently more formidable rival. Such incidents are not wholly fortuitous. They indicate how widely the coaching systems evolved at the large universities have spread over the land and how possible it is to train intelligent youths to play the game with speed and skill. Brawn is still highly desirable on any team, but it is no longer the *sine qua non* of a triple-threat man.

SECTIONAL CONFERENCES

ALONG with the growing ability of the small college to hold its own with larger institutions there has been a tendency to group teams on the basis of geographical propinquity and mutual rivalry into conferences and associations. Thus in the wake of the Western Conference or "Big Ten" have come the Missouri Valley, Southwest, Rocky Mountain, Pacific Coast, and a score of less important groupings of teams, whose schedules permit the awarding of sectional championships. The East alone has remained indifferent to these classifications, its schools relying upon traditional associations or alumni opinion to determine what opponents its teams shall meet.

576 Chicago-Wisconsin game, November 21, 1925, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

577 Army-Stanford Game, December 2, 1928, at the Yankee Stadium, New York, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

INTERSECTIONAL CONTESTS

A CERTAIN unity is maintained in the diverse conference groupings by the intersectional games which have grown rapidly in popularity during the last decade.. Not many years ago the East, Middle West, South, and Far West seldom had an opportunity to test the merits of their respective teams. Today miles have been obliterated for teams confident of their ability to finance long trips. In 1928 Army played teams from states as remote as Texas, Minnesota, Indiana, Nebraska, and California, thus demonstrating the fundamental similarity and superficial differences between the types of football played throughout the country.

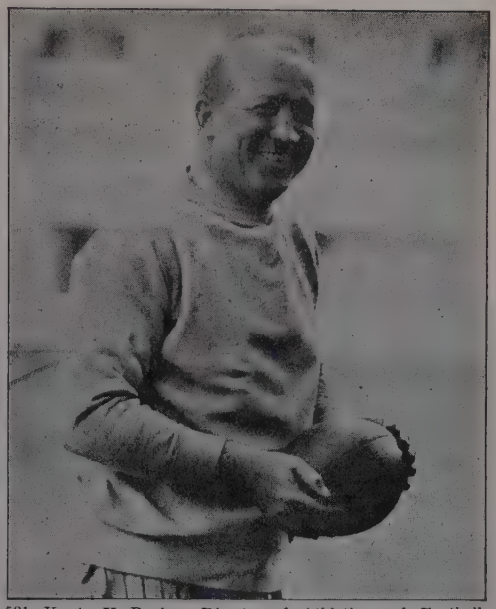
PACIFIC COAST FOOTBALL

THE idea that the East, that is, the region east of the Mississippi and north of the Mason and Dixon's Line, was football's real domain long persisted. It capitulated finally to the cumulative evidence of intersectional contests which revealed the strength of southern and western teams. The records of Vanderbilt, Alabama, Georgia, and Georgia Tech. since the World War have been an earnest of the type of game played below the Mason and Dixon's Line. The rise of no section, however, has been so meteoric as that of the Pacific Coast. No doubt the Washington, Oregon, and California teams were presenting excellent gridiron contests long before eastern critics accorded them merited recognition. At Washington the gloomy forebodings of Gilmour Dobie did not always mean unimpressive performance, as was later verified by his conduct of affairs for the Navy and Cornell. When Andrew L. Smith left Purdue for the University of California he lost none of the genius which had made him feared by his rivals in the Western Conference. Leland Stanford came into its own under the leadership of Glenn Warner, a sage whose football wisdom had been gained by a quarter century of experience at Cornell, Carlisle and Pittsburgh. With a wizardry reminiscent of his younger days he quickly brought gridiron glory to Palo Alto. Under such mentors, in whose company belongs Howard Jones at Southern California, the Pacific Coast teams rose to the first rank in intercollegiate football.

578 Gilmour Dobie, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

579 Glenn Warner, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

580 "The Four Horsemen," famous Notre Dame backfield of 1924, from a photograph, courtesy of the University of Notre Dame Athletic Association, South Bend, Indiana



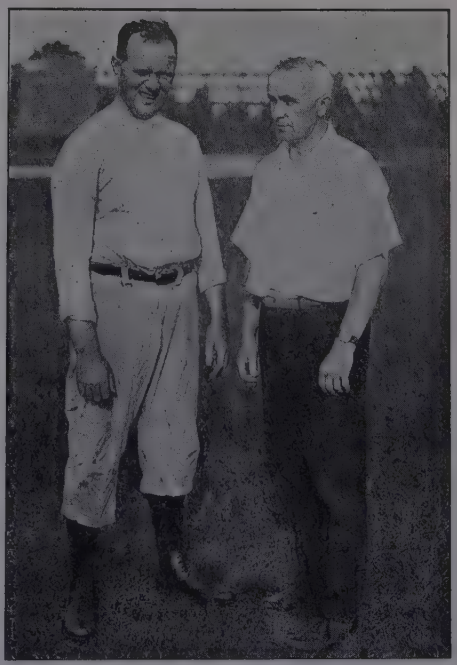
581 Knute K. Rockne, Director of Athletics and Football Coach at Notre Dame, from a photograph, courtesy of the University of Notre Dame Athletic Association, South Bend, Indiana

"THE FOUR HORSEMEN"

THE most peripatetic exemplars of intersectional football have been the teams emerging each year from the Notre Dame campus. No schedule maker has been able to daunt the courage of Knute Rockne since he became head coach at South Bend. He has led his teams back and forth across the country to meet formidable opponents on successive Saturdays and he has generally had the satisfaction of victory. In 1924 he presented one of the most extraordinary elevens of recent years. It traveled ten thousand five hundred miles in order to fulfill the engagements on its schedule, played in temperatures ranging from ten to seventy degrees above zero and defeated Wabash, Army, Princeton, Georgia Tech., Wisconsin, Nebraska, Northwestern, Carnegie Tech., and Leland Stanford in order. Its fame was enhanced by the exploits of the "Four Horsemen" — Stuhldreher, Crowley, Layden, and Miller — the most versatile and smoothly coördinated quartette that ever composed the backfield of a championship team.

WILLIAM W. ROPER

FEW coaches have equaled Knute Rockne's ability to inspire his men to play beyond their own capacity. If any has surpassed him, it must be William W. Roper of Princeton. Within recent years it has become a commonplace for Princeton teams with unimpressive records to rise to unprecedented heights in their most important games. They have exemplified Roper's motto that "a team which won't be beat can't be beat." None lived that spirit more magnificently than the team of 1922 of which little was expected on the basis of its performance early in the season. It entered the game against Chicago with its devoted supporters wondering how large a score Coach Stagg's team would roll up, but it would not accept defeat. With the odds against them 18 to 7 at the end of the third quarter, the Princeton men opened up a passing attack which carried the ball across the goal line twice in ten minutes. When Chicago answered with a furious line-smashing drive down the field the Tigers stood firm a foot from the last white stripe and took the ball on downs. With that stand the last Maroon bid for victory collapsed. An intelligent well-trained team had taken advantage of its opportunities. It was Princeton 21, Chicago 18. With the inspiration of that victory the eleven completed its season by defeating Harvard and Yale, and took its place in history as Princeton's "team of destiny."

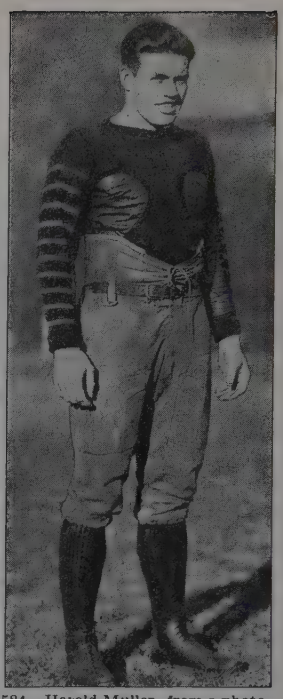


582 William Roper (left), and Keene Fitzpatrick, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

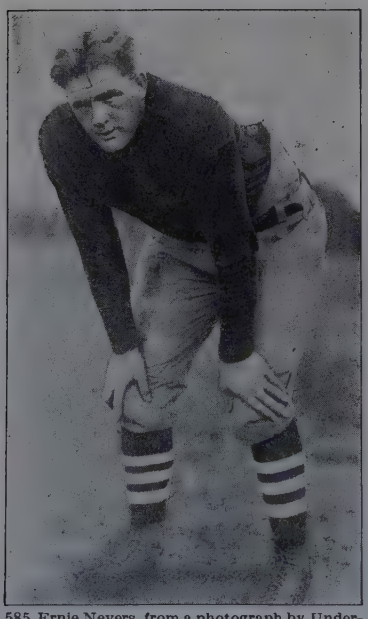
583 Tack Hardwick, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

LATTER DAY HEROES

In football the coördinated effort of eleven men is the great objective. Yet the game has always had its heroes, outstanding players who seemed to tower above their fellows. They have been heralded in increasing numbers since the changes in rules of 1910. None knows better than the player himself, however, how often stellar performance is made possible by the nice adjustments of team play. The man wallowing in the muck of the scrimmage line seldom hears the crowd's applause, but he more often merits it than the elusive half back who scores touchdowns. When one seeks to name the truly great of the gridiron in the last twenty years a whole company stands forth deserving a place on the roll of distinction. A few are known wherever football is played. At the ends were "Tack" Hardwick of Harvard, so devastating an interferer that no opposing player remained in the path of the ball carrier, and "Brick" Muller of California, able to hurl the pigskin like a baseball sixty yards down the field. Among the tackles were Stanley Keck of Princeton, Wilbur Henry of Washington and Jefferson and "Belf" West of Colgate, all irresistible giants with the speed of lighter men. Probably nearest to Heffelfinger at the guard position in these latter days have been Spears of Dartmouth, Brown of the Navy, and Pennock of Harvard. No coach would worry if he could find the equal of Peck of Pittsburgh or Des Jardien of Chicago to hold the center of the line. Behind such a forward wall any set of backs should find their offensive and defensive tasks easy. Certainly a quartette selected from Grange of Illinois, Mahan or Brickley of Harvard, Thorpe of Carlisle, Pfann of Cornell, Oliphant of Purdue and the Army, Nevers of Stanford, and Gipp of Notre Dame would have satisfied the most fastidious critic of backfield play. In Grange and Mahan followers of the gridiron sport saw its greatest broken field runners. Elusive phantoms, masters of change of pace, they left the yards behind them strewn with tacklers who had tried and missed. Brickley's field goals decided many a game when the teams were evenly matched. Thorpe and Nevers were the most versatile exemplars of the triple threat. Each could plunge, pass, kick, block and tackle supremely well. Had Thorpe been less indolent his name might head all the rest. Finally, there was that gridiron strategist, whose tactics were well nigh-faultless, George Pfann. His careful analysis of the enemy's weakness reminded those who saw him play of that earlier master, Walter Eckersall. Besides directing the offensive campaign Pfann shared the burden of ball carrying in a way that caused his opponents to fear that they had lost the art of tackling, and he had the ability to go additional yards after he had apparently been pinned down.



584 Harold Muller, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, Chicago



585 Ernie Nevers, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, Chicago

586 Charles E. Brickley, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

DOTTING THE LAND WITH STADIUMS

587 Stadium at the University of California, from a photograph by George Stone, from Ewing Galloway, New York

Some psychologists assure us that the recreation of youth is but practice and preparation for the more serious responsibilities of life's later activities. Other students are equally positive that man's play is an unconscious reversion to primitive practices. If either of these theories be true the popularity of football is easily understandable. It calls for qualities which are essential to success in the modern world; its devotees must have endurance, courage, and speed; they must learn the value of coöperation and decisiveness. At the same time the game permits both spectator and participant to revert to aboriginal manners. In it are reproduced the rude personal encounters, the face-to-face contests, the swift flight and pursuit characteristic of the activities of primitive man. Every feature of its setting is conducive to that utter abandon which affords the greatest relief from mental tension. Here, perhaps, is the explanation of its appeal, an appeal so compelling that its financial returns have dotted the land with stadiums of proportions more imposing than those of antiquity's great amphitheaters. Under the shadow of West Rock at New Haven is the Yale Bowl, a concrete encircled oval in which could be placed the Roman Colosseum with space enough remaining for a sizable hippodrome all around it. In the natural setting of California hills at Berkeley modern football has erected a monument in the form of a stadium which accommodates twice as many spectators as gathered to witness the hundred-day games with which the Emperor Titus welcomed the Roman populace to the Colosseum.

A REGAL SPECTACLE

In the shortening days of October and November, when the odor of burning brushwood is in the air and the tingle of frost stirs the blood, millions of Americans wend their way to the appointed places where they may witness the pomp and pageantry of modern football. Mingling with the joyous crowds, stimulated by the staccato rhythm of the cheers, inspirited by the enormous energy of youth, they became a part of the stupendous spectacle. From lofty heights they look down upon the twenty-two contending players and feel the elemental joy of combat, a combat not only of physical strength but of mental alertness with its infinite possibilities for thrilling moments. They sense the translations of deep-seated instincts into action. They see the power and the beauty. For them there is more than brute strength in the fierce tackle and the savage line thrust, the struggle of opposing forwards, and the defiant goal line stands. It is all part of an unforgettable picture wherein graceful spirals, swift passes, sinuous runs mingle with singing crowds and flying banners beneath the high blue of autumnal skies.

588 Stadium at the University of Illinois, from a photograph. © 1924 by Kaufman & Fabry, Chicago

589 Le Baron R. Briggs, from a photograph by Bachrach, Newton, Mass.

A SCHOLASTIC PROBLEM

With the glorification of the gridiron American colleges and universities faced the "problem of athletics" in an aggravated form. How could they keep football free from commercialism? How could they keep football from dominating in an objectionable fashion the life of the campus? Perhaps no college administrator brought to the solution of the problem so thorough an understanding of its ramifications as Dean Le Baron R. Briggs, of Harvard. When he was appointed in 1907 chairman of the Committee on the Regulation of Athletic Sports, football had just emerged from a period of widespread public criticism. Dean Briggs appreciated the justice of much of this criticism, but he opposed the group which thought that the game should be abolished. Insisting that Harvard's problem was but a part of a greater national problem, he proposed certain specific things that might be done at Cambridge. He would promote more cordial relations between Harvard and rival colleges, appeal to chivalry in enforcing honorable conduct on the gridiron, educate the alumni in the amateur spirit, and discourage "scandalous expenditures" which bred overorganization and commercialism. That Dean Briggs did not persuade all colleges to follow his program is evident, but his influence was potent in the attempt to maintain football and other collegiate sports "at such a high level" as to "keep them above legitimate question."

BEHIND THE SCENES

The dramatic struggle on the "day of the big game" is made possible by weeks of intensive preparation. When Coach Stagg began his football career at Yale there were "no regular coaches, trainers, rubbers or even a water boy. Occasionally graduated players were drifting back to advise the football team but the captain still was a captain, not a coach's foreman. He chose the team, ran it and was not always above playing favorites. Once elected he was answerable to no one." The system has become complex since this era of the canvas-jacketed player. The captain is no longer an autocrat but part of an elaborate organization. Under the jurisdiction of the head coach is a staff of experts, training linesmen, ends, and backs in the responsibilities of their respective positions. The instruction, which is methodical and thorough, is translated into terms of definite achievement during a season of intensive practice. Most colleges maintain a corps of scouts, once regarded as "spies" but now recognized as "official observers," to inform the coaching staff of the plans of the opposition, while a board of strategy maps out an effective counter-campaign. Trainers and medical advisers carefully watch the physical condition of the squad. In the larger colleges no money is spared in providing the best equipment available or in securing whatever paraphernalia may assist in attaining the goal of victory. The team which takes the field amid the pomp and circumstance of modern football is a skillfully coördinated machine; its interchangeable parts may be replaced by able substitutes; its evolutions weave the patterns of the coaches' designing. So long as it functions smoothly and produces victories undergraduates and alumni are satisfied. But if it breaks down in any part, unhappy is the lot of its creators.

590 Training for football at Princeton, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE BIG BUSINESS OF FOOTBALL

591 Crowd on way to Harvard-Princeton game at Cambridge, from a photograph. © International Newsreel, New York

THOUGH football has remained primarily a scholastic sport, so wide has been its appeal that it has assumed the proportions of a gigantic industry. Indeed much of the shrewd calculation of the business world has become associated with the game. It has its press agents who spread far and wide the fame of the team and the skill of its coaches. Publicity has increased the number of devotees and has brought to the ticket office receipts undreamed of a generation ago. Chambers of Commerce, merchants' associations, transportation companies and a host of concessionaires have discovered the spending propensities of the crowds that swarm in the stadium on the days of important contests. Their voices have been joined to those of the press agents in promoting the success of the team. So receipts have mounted and the hierarchy in charge of them has become more complex. When it is realized that the annual football income of Yale and Illinois, to take two examples, exceeds the average endowment of more than two hundred colleges in this country, the responsibility of those who control the funds becomes apparent. Where is the money going? Too much of it, perhaps, is still expended on "bigger and better" stadiums. But there is considerable truth in the contention of athletic directors and graduate managers that the gridiron sport finances baseball and basket ball, builds swimming pools and tennis courts, and is preparing the way for a program of intra-mural athletics which will make "athletics for all" something more than a pious wish. By the fruits of its earnings football will be judged in the future.

592 Harold Grange, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE PROFESSIONAL

THE lure of profits inevitably attracted professional promoters to the gridiron. A quarter of a century ago professional football flourished in certain sections where factory workers and miners found it an exciting diversion on the Sabbath. The present renascence of the game, however, is an attempt to capitalize the alluring pageantry of the college sport. Players are recruited from the ranks of former college stars; as far as possible the atmosphere of the intercollegiate contest is reproduced. The result has not been a particularly happy one from the standpoint of either spectators or players. The professional game is usually a sorry counterfeit of the great spectacle of the campus. Its players perform not like heroes, but like hired men. For the emotional basis of the scholastic sport has been substituted the gain impulse of the world of business. The difference is sensed by those who participate as well as by those who watch. The promoters are frankly perplexed, but they have not yet abandoned hope that football, like many other sports, may be commercialized without losing entirely that appeal which draws thousands of dollars into the treasuries of the college athletic associations.

593 Squad of Stuyvesant High School, New York, in early training, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE SCHOLASTIC INFLUENCE

In the face of the recent attempt to take football from its campus setting, it is reassuring to contemplate the widespread popularity of the game throughout the secondary schools of the nation. Partly because of its seasonal advantage it has become a more typical scholastic sport than baseball. Thirty years ago its vogue was largely in the colleges and larger preparatory schools, for many insisted that it was an impossible inter-scholastic sport for boys of high school age. Its introduction to most secondary schools was not the work of faculty committees or athletic advisers, for in many instances the school authorities were hostile. It was the result of student imitation of the college gridiron heroes. In the early days a team was a motley company of enthusiasts, each one of whom had furnished his own uniform, many of them home-made. The players managed the schedule and finances with little assistance or supervision from the school faculty. Some former college player was induced to offer his services as coach, but he usually served as arbiter of personal feuds rather than as a drill master in gridiron principles. If the team received sufficient financial support to employ a coach, more often than not he was a swashbuckling representative of a rough and ready type which no longer infests the gridiron. The high school team of today has traveled far from its early prototype. Under faculty control, with eligibility rules strictly enforced, it is the college team *in parvo*. Greater than the change in organization and equipment has been the transformation in coaching methods. The secondary school coach is now a recognized member of the faculty, chosen because of proficiency in the sport which he is expected to supervise. His summers are often spent at one of the numerous coaching schools where he receives new ideas on the technic of the game and studies the fundamentals of successful leadership in the work of the gridiron. Consequently the quality of his instruction is often equal to that of the college football mentor and his teams are constantly furnishing well-drilled players for the college elevens. In many cases the high school coach has done far more than produce a winning team. He has made a victorious football season the crowning achievement in a system of physical education which reaches the entire school. Under his direction an intra-mural arrangement offers the opportunity to play football to any boy who will. Many teams are organized. Participants not spectators are encouraged. From the emphasis on universal participation often comes the winning team, a tribute to the true vision of scholastic athletics.

594 Santo Curro of the Lincoln High School, Milwaukee, maker of the record Wisconsin punt, from a photograph by Wide World Photos, New York

CHAPTER X

THE GROWTH OF TEAM PLAY

IN 1885 the Massachusetts Emergency and Hygiene Association constructed several sand gardens and established them as free playgrounds for the small children of Boston. At the time there was nothing particularly significant about this innovation, but subsequent developments marked it as the first in a series of related activities which inaugurated the organized play movement in the United States. Successful experiments with manual play for little children led Boston to devise playgrounds for adolescent youth. Its ventures were imitated by other cities which profited from the mistakes of the pioneer in the field. In 1905 steps were taken to coördinate the efforts of various municipalities into a national program based upon investigation of the needs peculiar to different sections of the country. The formation of the Playground and Recreation Association of America in that year gave new impetus to the movement and challenged those communities which had failed to realize their responsibility.

During the first forty years of its evolution the play movement passed through transitional stages which re-shaped its objectives and altered its methods. The initial concern over the physical welfare of children was broadened to include the recreational requirements of all ages. As unsupervised play gradually gave way to carefully directed games and pastimes, so the individualistic basis of recreation slowly yielded to that of group activity. Originally supported by philanthropic contributions, the playgrounds and recreation centers came under the control, financial and otherwise, of the municipal authorities. With the entrance of the United States into the World War, emphasis was placed insistently upon the broad social needs of the community. What had originated as a play movement had grown into a significant attempt to educate the American people in the possibilities of creative leisure.

In the development of the playground the play movement was intimately associated with the growth of team play. The park-like athletic field, mainly located in the cities, though rural districts were not entirely neglected, helped American youth to revive the pastimes informally practiced by the earlier generations. Boys, and later girls, who had never experienced spontaneous play on vacant meadow, back lot, or village school ground, competed in wholesome individual athletics or in vigorous team play under competent supervision. Old games were adapted to meet particular local needs; new games were devised in order to stimulate interest. Of especial importance were the efforts to acquaint young women with the requirements of group competition, that they might enjoy the sense of coöperating with their team mates. From playground ball, soccer, hockey, volley ball and outdoor basket ball, the players learned a skill which some of them later applied in the more intricate sports of lacrosse and polo.

Probably the most socially significant contribution of modern team play has been its powerful influence for national solidarity. Whether on municipal athletic field, on school playground, or on college campus, American youth learned much more than successful coöperation and good sportsmanship. Representatives of many nations, drawn from families of widely varying cultural backgrounds, they found a common denominator in competitive sports. Athletic prowess in group competition proved a truly democratic force, often counteracting tendencies toward class and caste distinction.

595 Ball playing among the Choctaw Indians, from an engraving after a drawing in George Catlin, *North American Indian Portfolio*, London, 1844

AN INDIAN DIVERSION

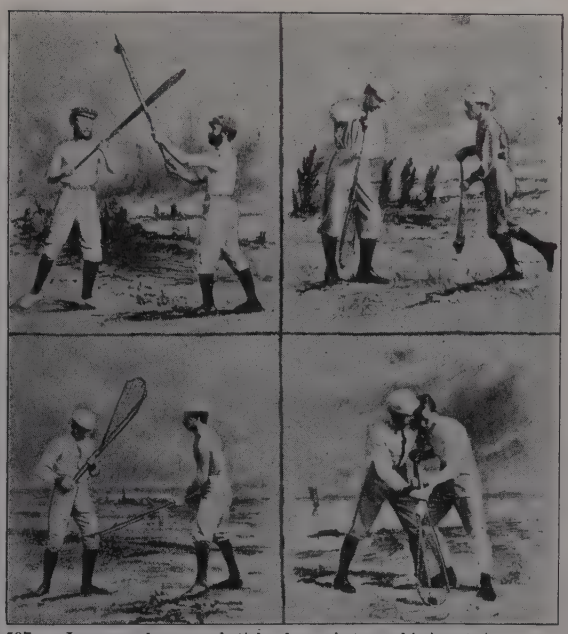
When the "palefaces" in Canada first fraternized with the redskins, they found that the American Indian was adept in a game played with a peculiarly crooked stick which the northern tribes in their respective dialects called "ball play." From the form of the stick European observers named the sport, *la crosse*. To them it seemed to resemble deadly combat, but hundreds of participants came through the forests in their birch-bark canoes to play with utter abandon at the tournaments. Though these meetings had none of the religious symbolism of the Greek games, the players, sometimes several hundred in number, prepared themselves with elaborate ceremonial the night before the contest. While the squaws lined the field as stolid spectators the prospective participants fulfilled an ancient ritual. Clad only in loin cloth and belt, carrying their playing sticks, they danced about the tree or post which had been chosen for one of the goals, their painted bodies swaying weirdly in the light of the flickering torches. Having invoked the favor of the wilderness spirits the braves were ready to strive for victory in the furious struggle on the morrow.

THE TURBULENT GAME

The Indian version of lacrosse required but simple equipment. Each player possessed a three- or four-foot stick of light wood with a round hoop at one end large enough to catch a ball similar to the modern tennis ball. Across the hoop was a network woven at times from the small roots of the spruce tree or again from strips of deerskin. Many tribes were partial to a form of play which allowed two such sticks to each player. The ball was made of deerskin, stuffed with hair and sewn with sinews, though in some regions a wooden ball was preferred. An unlimited number of contestants divided into two numerically equal teams strove with much yelling and swinging of sticks to carry or throw the ball into their opponent's goal. Of such a turbulent game staged by representatives of the Five Nations, an English traveler wrote in 1828: "One of the chiefs, having advanced to the centre of the arc cast the ball high in the air. As it fell, between twenty and thirty players rushed forward and leaping several feet off the ground, tried to strike it. The multiplicity of blows, acting in different directions, had the effect of bringing the ball to the ground where a fine scramble took place. . . . At length an Indian, more expert than the others, contrived to nip the ball between the ends of his two sticks and ran off with it like a deer, with his arms raised over his head pursued by a whole party engaged in the first struggle. The fortunate youth was, of course, intercepted in his progress twenty different times by his antagonists, who shot like hawks across his flight, from all parts of the field, to knock the prize out of his grasp, or to trip him up — in short by any means to prevent his throwing it through the opening between the boughs at the end of the playground. Whenever this grand purpose of the game was accomplished the successful party announced their right to count one by a fierce yell of triumph which pierced the very depths of the wilderness." — Basil Hall, *Travels in the United States in 1827–1828.*

596 Indian Lacrosse, from an engraving after a drawing in George Catlin, *North American Indian Portfolio*, London, 1844

CANADIANS BECOME INTERESTED



597 Lacrosse players and sticks, from photographic inserts in William George Beers, *Lacrosse*, New York, 1869

Prior to the nineteenth century lacrosse remained a sport for Indians, but the white man enjoyed its vigorous action from the side lines. French and, later, English garrisons in Canada always welcomed the opportunity to watch a sharply contested game. Under cover of such a friendly contest between the Ojibways and the Sauks, the little garrison at Michillemackinac was surprised and massacred on the fourth of June 1763. At an exciting moment in the game the Indians suddenly discarded their playing sticks for tomahawks and stormed the fort. It is difficult to be sure about the first tentative attempts of the Canadians to test their ability in the Indian pastime, but as early as 1839 Montreal had a club of lacrosse players, who were indebted to the Caughnawagee and St. Regis Indians for their measure of skill. Some twenty years later the sport had become well known in the vicinity of Montreal and a number of contests were staged by Canadian and Indian players upon the occasion of the Prince of Wales' visit in 1861. Prominent in the formation of the National Lacrosse Association of Canada six years later was Dr. William George Beers, who gave generously of his time to the task of reducing the tumultuous struggle of the early days to an orderly exhibition of team play.

LACROSSE CROSSES THE BORDER

It was the influence emanating from Montreal and Toronto that brought lacrosse to the attention of our own country. The example of the St. Regis Indians inspired the tribes in northern New York particularly the Onondagas to revive the sport in which their ancestors had excelled. The Shamrock, Beaver, and Dominion lacrosse clubs of Canada were imitated and occasionally engaged in contest by the Mohawk Club of Troy, New York, and the Maple Leafs of Buffalo. In the 'sixties New York, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia became curious about this exciting game of Indian origin. They found that it was played on fields approximately 125 yards in length by teams composed of twelve men, each player equipped with a four-foot stick of hickory, crooked in such fashion as to permit an oval network of catgut to be stretched taut across one end of it. With these modifications of the Indian *crosse* the players, by catching the sponge rubber ball on the net, carried or passed it down the field until it had been caged in the goal. The captain of each team directed the course of attack or defense, as the case might be, and every effort was made to subordinate individual performance to well-executed team work.

598 Lacrosse played by the Dominion Club of Montreal at the Capitolene Grounds, Brooklyn, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, Sept. 12, 1868

599 Navy lacrosse team, 1928, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

PLAYER AND SPECTATOR

DESPITE the regulative provisions designed to modernize lacrosse, it still retains many of the attractive features of the sport popular with dusky warriors in the valley of the St. Lawrence centuries ago. If the wild scramble of many contestants has been eliminated, the twisting, turning runs, the stops of the goal keepers, the clever stick work of the attacking forwards, and the long passes of the fielders have not been lost. Stimulating for the player and amusing to the spectator are the frequent upsets and unexpected somersaults, the skillful maneuvering to stop the runner and the lively contests around the goal. There is an art, not easily acquired, in the throws, dodges, and blocking which sustains the interest of those who play and those who watch.

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE LACROSSE ASSOCIATION

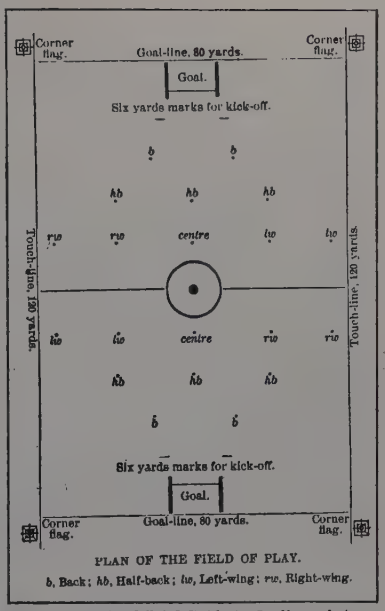
MANY teams supported by associations of amateurs had become proficient with the *crosse* before college students turned their attention to the game. Although Harvard had been playing with Boston clubs for several years, it did not succeed in persuading Princeton and New York University to form an intercollegiate association until 1882. From that year the sport grew slowly in undergraduate favor, despite one or two "periods of depression." For twenty years it was confined to Harvard, Yale, and Princeton with an occasional team representing Columbia, Cornell, Stevens Institute, or Boston University. Then, in 1905, when the existing association was well nigh defunct, a new intercollegiate league was formed. In its northern division were included Harvard, Cornell, Columbia, and Hobart, while the southern was composed of Johns Hopkins, Lehigh, Stevens, and Swarthmore. The member institutions became centers of missionary endeavor on behalf of the sport. Within fifteen years there were a score of colleges, fifteen secondary schools and a dozen independent clubs which divided interest in the early spring between baseball and lacrosse. Reorganized in 1926, the United States Intercollegiate Lacrosse League has brought the game to such high estate in this country that it bids fair to play a prominent part in the development of intra-mural athletics. The brilliant performance of Johns Hopkins, Syracuse, Navy, and Army teams in recent years has been particularly impressive.

600 Thrilling moment of Harvard-Syracuse practice game, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

601 John Hopkins lacrosse team, 1928, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE SURVIVAL OF ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL

In the emphasis on spontaneous team play and in general principles of attack and defense lacrosse and association football have much in common. Despite the phenomenal success of Americanized Rugby, the game sponsored by the London Football Association in 1863 has not been without its ardent supporters. During the 'seventies of the last century the English rules were carefully followed, particularly in those communities where citizens of Great Britain preserved the manners and mores of their native land. English weavers in Massachusetts formed amateur teams, while the cricket clubs of Philadelphia organized a league in 1886 to promote the sport. In New York the Clan MacDonald, the Camerons, and the Clan Mackenzie kept interest from waning, though they were somewhat handicapped by the difficulty of securing satisfactory fields for practice and games. In 1890 Chicago, Cincinnati, and St. Louis were represented by successful teams, and California, where the winter season was peculiarly satisfactory for play, reported participants from grammar-school boys to skilled professionals.



PLAN OF THE FIELD OF PLAY.

b, Back; *hb*, Half-back; *lw*, Left-wing; *rw*, Right-wing.

602 From the *Official Guide to Gaelic and Association Football*, September 1893

603 The Pilgrims ball-finesman watching the Throw-in during game at the Polo Grounds, October 21, 1905, from *Harper's Weekly*, November 4, 1905

THE TOUR OF THE PILGRIMS

In 1905, at the moment that President Roosevelt was conferring with representatives of intercollegiate football concerning the modification of that sport, the Pilgrim eleven arrived in the United States to serve as special advocate in behalf of Association football or "soccer," as it was known to most Americans. Composed of leading British amateurs, the Pilgrims under Captain Fred H. Milnes spent two months playing exhibition games from Boston to St. Louis, meeting few proficient teams but arousing more than passing interest in the game which they presented. The fruit of their tour was abundantly harvested within the next two years as amateur clubs, professional teams and college students found soccer a more exciting, though less spectacular, recreation than intercollegiate football.

INTERCOLLEGIATE SOCCER

One result of the favorable impression created by the Pilgrims' visit was the renaissance of soccer in the colleges of the country. Eclipsed by the Rugby game, it had virtually disappeared when Professor W. P. Mustard, in the autumn of 1901, persuaded the students of Haverford to form a team which played its first contests with teams from the Philadelphia cricket clubs. Haverford arranged the first intercollegiate match with Harvard in 1905. A year later these two schools capitalized the momentary enthusiasm for the sport by forming the Intercollegiate Association Football League with Pennsylvania, Columbia and Cornell.

604 Princeton Soccer team defeats the University of Pennsylvania, 1922, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

DOUGLAS STEWART

THE English, Scottish, and Canadian influences which promoted the development of soccer in this country are well personified by Douglas Stewart. His apprentice days in the sport were marked by many a "tumble on heather" in his native land. After he had earned a reputation as a crack amateur he played on notable teams both in England and Canada. His contributions as a coach in this country began in 1908, when he assisted several of the amateur clubs in Philadelphia to train their soccer representatives. Two years later he undertook the task of interesting the Pennsylvania undergraduates in the Association game. So successful were his efforts that the sport was promptly raised to major status by the athletic authorities. Stewart's teams, displaying fine form in the kicking game, placed Pennsylvania regularly at the head of the Intercollegiate Football Association and when the league disbanded in 1925 the championship cup was awarded to the Philadelphia university in perpetuity as most frequent winner of the annual contests for its possession.

605 Douglas Stewart, from a photograph, courtesy of the University of Pennsylvania

THE NATIONAL CHALLENGE CUP

THE college campus has not, however, been the home of association football in the United States. Far more interest among spectators and participants was manifested in the contests between amateur or professional teams sponsored by great industries. On the Pacific Coast and in the Middle West, leagues were formed to determine regional championships, while in New England soccer during the autumn was almost as popular as baseball during the spring and summer. In 1913 the American penchant for organization, even in recreation, manifested itself in the formation of the United States Football Association, which proceeded to arrange a series of elimination contests whereby a national champion might be determined. The Association offered a National Challenge Cup as a trophy and competition has been so keen that one hundred and thirty-two teams took part in the eliminations in 1922. Consequently it was found necessary to organize eastern and western divisions to determine final contenders in the championship contest.

606 The National Giants soccer team in action, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

607 Soccer Match between the New York "Giants" and the Bethlehem Steel Team, 1928, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

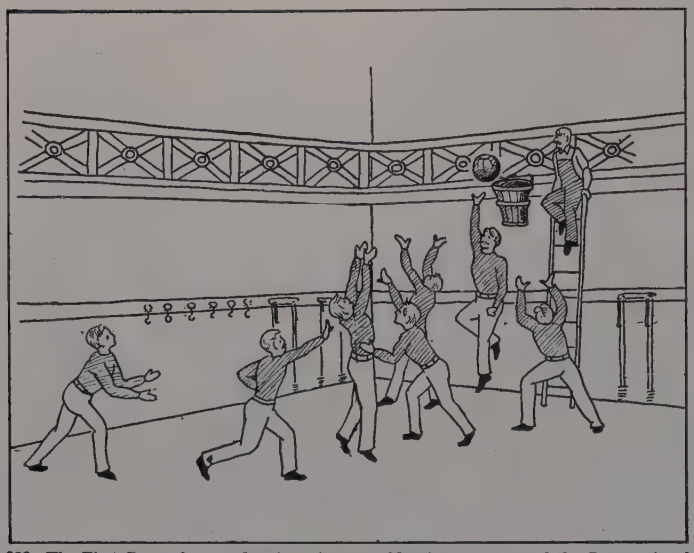
THE PROFESSIONALS

Much of the popularity which soccer enjoys at present is due to the foresight of Thomas W. Cahill and his associates in the United States Football Association during the World War. When American youths were being mobilized in the cantonments preparatory to service overseas, it was the officials of the national organization who supplied the soccer football which opened one avenue of recreation to the soldier in camp. The interest thus aroused in the sport has grown remarkably in the past ten years. For the industrial worker, both as player and as spectator, soccer has provided that recreational outlet which the colleges and secondary schools have found in football. The success of the first major professional circuit, the American Soccer League, formed in 1921, has convinced many promoters that the methods of professional baseball may in time be applied to the game which in England draws its one hundred and twenty thousand to a Cup Tie at Wembley.

AMONG THE SCHOOLBOYS

Except for certain sections of the country association football has not attracted the schoolboys in large numbers. In the metropolitan districts of the East and in California it has received merited recognition from secondary schools, whose teams play with the traditional zest and abandon of English schoolboys. It becomes more obvious as the game is learned by the younger generation that it is a valuable factor in any program of "athletics for all." Free from the objectionable features of such personal-contact sports as intercollegiate football and basket ball, it places a premium upon speed, accuracy, and resourcefulness. While it may be played with skill at no sacrifice of personal enjoyment by the player, at the same time the highest proficiency is not essential for a maximum of fun. Hundreds of new players each year are realizing its rare qualities as stimulating entertainment. At some schools it has already proved its ability to keep the enthusiast at play while on an adjoining field the spectacle of an interscholastic football game entertains those students who take their athletics vicariously.

608 Soccer game between teams of Curtis and Commercial High Schools, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York



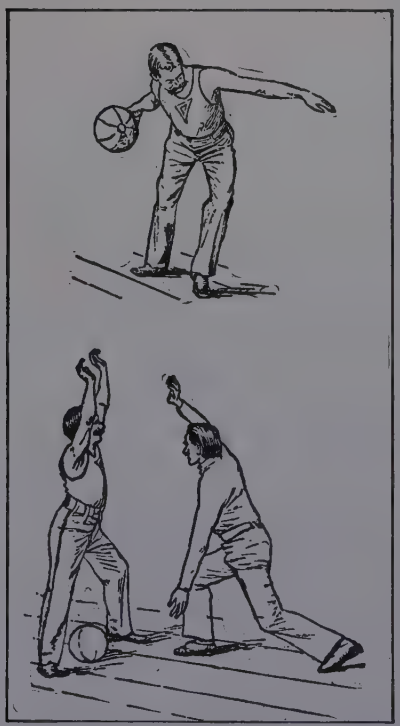
609 The First Game, from a drawing after an old print, courtesy of the International Y.M.C.A. College, Springfield

THE ORIGIN OF BASKET BALL

UNLIKE most games played with a ball, basket ball is a modern product rather than the result of a long evolutionary process. Under the caption, "A New Game," its rules first appeared in *Triangle*, the school paper of the Y.M.C.A. Training College at Springfield, Massachusetts, in January 1892. Designed by Dr. James Naismith, then an instructor in physical education, the game proved to be an ingenious adaptation of the fundamental principles of lacrosse and association football to the requirements of indoor competition on gymnasium floors. Its creator desired to introduce a sport which would provide the same recreation during the winter months that football afforded in the autumn and baseball in the spring. Using an ordinary association football as the chief instrument of play, Dr. Naismith formulated a plan whereby coördinated teamwork would, through passing, advance the ball toward the goals at each end of the hall. In order to emphasize care and accuracy rather than force, the goal was placed overhead and peach baskets, used in the first practice games, gave the name to the new sport.

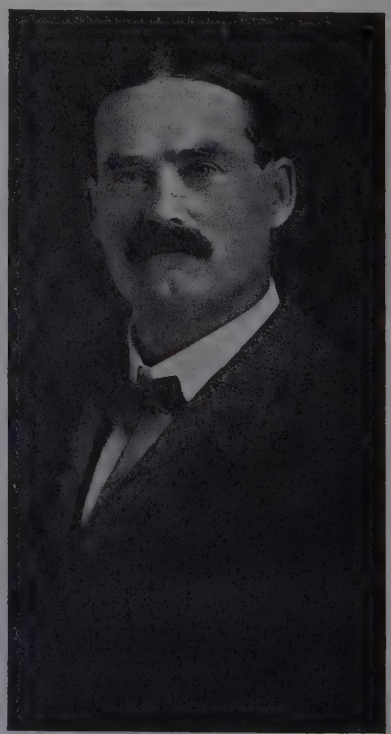
A NEW FACTOR IN PHYSICAL TRAINING

THE immediate success of basket ball was astonishing. Its sponsors among the athletic directors in the Young Men's Christian Association hoped that it would be a valuable addition to existing programs of physical education. They did not expect it to become within a decade one of the most popular of all scholastic sports.



610 Basket ball diagram, from a drawing in James Naismith and Luther Gulick, *Basket Ball*, New York, 1893

Yet the universality of basket ball's appeal was understandable. There was real need for such a game, since physical education at the time was confined to the apparatus work of the Germans or the free gymnastics of the Swedish system. Competitive games had not been advantageously exploited. Furthermore basket ball called for a high type of athletic development, but required little in the way of equipment, and could be played on any ordinary gymnasium floor. The fact that it was developed within an organization having contacts throughout the world gave it an impetus which carried it far. The members of the first organized team at Springfield became missionaries for the new game in the Mississippi Valley, on the Pacific Coast, and, beyond the Pacific, in China and Japan.

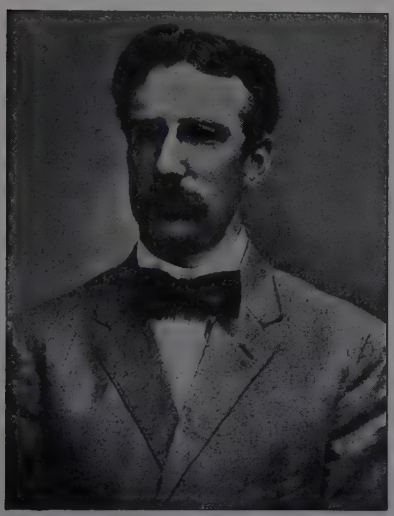


611 Dr. James Naismith, inventor of basket ball, from a photograph, courtesy of the International Y.M.C.A. College, Springfield

EXPANSION TO THE COLLEGE CAMPUS

612 Wesleyan University Basket Ball Team, 1903, courtesy of Wesleyan University

Basket ball did not long remain a mere incident in the work of the gymnasium. With remarkable speed it spread beyond the confines of the organization which developed it. Its introduction into academic circles occurred at Carroll Institute in Washington, D. C., within the first year of the game's existence. At Cornell it provided mass recreation, as the number on a side was seldom limited to less than a score. Its sudden vogue in the gymnasium was the despair of the physical training experts who knew not how to handle the groups clamoring to play. At Yale the first regular college teams were organized and in 1896 games were arranged with Trinity, Wesleyan and the University of Pennsylvania. In the closing years of the century the University of Minnesota and the University of Iowa established the game in the Middle West, where it was even more favorably received than in the East.



613 George T. Hepbron, from a photograph in *How to Play Basketball*, American Sports Publishing Co., New York, 1904

PROTECTING THE AMATEUR

The mushroom growth of intercollegiate competition was paralleled by the development of amateur and professional basket ball clubs. So rapid was the expansion of interest that professionals were soon "playing to crowded houses" in the East. An interstate league of clubs was formed in Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, but the problem of protecting the amateur against professionalism became pressing. At the suggestion of Dr. Luther Gulick, then secretary of the athletic league of the Y.M.C.A., and with the assistance of George T. Hepbron, all amateur teams and players were registered with the Amateur Athletic Union, which assumed responsibility for approving schedules and supervising championship contests among non-collegiate amateurs. In 1904 competition among college teams was placed within the jurisdiction of a committee of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association, which later became the National Collegiate Athletic Association.

614 New York Celtics, 1927, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE PROFESSIONAL

While the early amateur teams were developing basket ball under rules which gave first consideration to the players' interest in the game, many had sensed the appeal which the sport made to spectators. From the Y.M.C.A. and athletic clubs there was a constant drift of promotors and players into the ranks of professionalism. It was profitable to present the kaleidoscopic changes, the graceful pattern of swift passes, and the perfectly timed coöperation which were part of the competition between expert handlers of the ball. In Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Pittsburgh and a score of cities the professional found enthusiastic crowds, more interested in the performance of skilled players than in the success of the favored team. The leading teams, like the Celtics of New York, were able to cover extended itineraries presenting everywhere a game as brilliant as that which they played on their home courts.

615 Scene from a University of Illinois basket ball game, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE LEAGUES

Though the professional player contributed much to the technique of basket ball, the collegian gradually came to dominate the game. The faultlessly played contests of the skilled experts lacked the zest of keen rivalry which characterized scholastic competition. On its merits basket ball rose in many colleges, especially in the Middle West, from a minor to a major sport. In the East, a conference of representatives from Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale formed a league in 1900 which awarded an annual championship. When Harvard withdrew, Pennsylvania and, later, Dartmouth were added. Within the Western Conference, Minnesota, Chicago and Wisconsin shared honors during the early years of the present century. Sectional conferences and state leagues included hundreds of teams from small colleges as well as from large universities. Of the fifty-eight hundred organized groups listed in 1914 a small percentage was from institutions of higher learning, but their influence upon the sport was greater than the mere ratio of their numbers to the whole body of basket ball players in the country.

616 "Guarding" in basket ball, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

IMPROVING THE RULES

Prior to 1914 three rules committees exercised jurisdiction over various parts of the basket ball world. The code prescribed for the intercollegiate game was not precisely in accord with that accepted by the Young Men's Christian Association or by the Amateur Athletic Union. The diversity, often troublesome for officials and disconcerting to spectators, was overcome by the selection of a joint rules committee in 1914. At the same time the life of the referee was made easier by the adoption of the "personal foul rule," which automatically removed from the game a chronic offender in such violations of the rules as holding, tripping, and body blocking. It was a change which encouraged players to "play the ball not the man" and tended to minimize rough tactics of an intentional character.

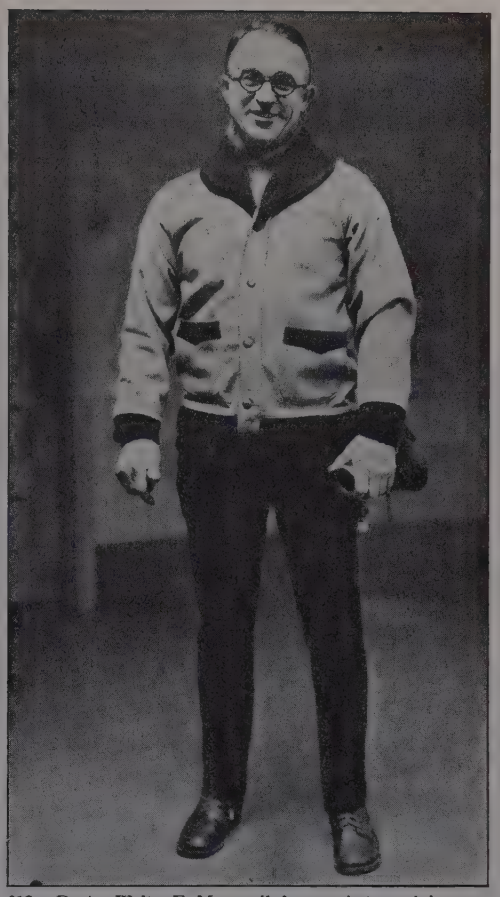
617 Edward McNichol, from a photograph, courtesy of the Committee on Athletics, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE COACHES

The evolution of basket ball has been less dependent upon the deliberations of the various rules committees than upon the contributions of players and coaches. A quarter century ago George C. Appell of Williams, Harry A. Fisher of Columbia, Roswell B. Hyatt of Yale, and O. D. Vanderbilt of Princeton while still in college became true teachers of the game, as they demonstrated the correct way to pass, cut, and pivot, the graceful symmetry of the short-passing offense, and the well-nigh flawless guarding of the man-to-man defense. The type of play which they set has been perpetuated and improved by the versatile coaches of recent years. McNichol at Pennsylvania, Mather at Michigan, Fogarty at Yale, and Page at Indiana are a few among scores of experts who have been active in developing the theory and practice of the basket ball court.

DR. WALTER E. MEANWELL

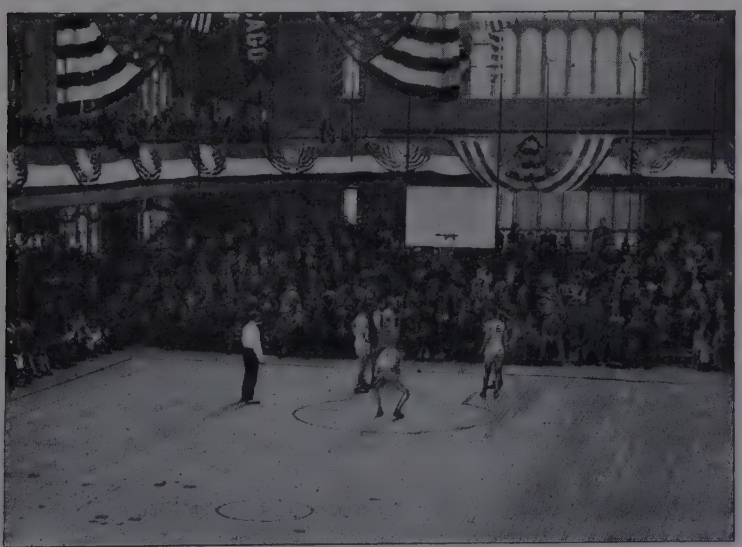
To Dr. Walter E. Meanwell, because of his ability as a theorist and teacher as well as by reason of his years of service, belongs the title of dean of American basket ball coaches. In the past quarter century he has written with the authority born of years of experience on the fundamental principles which should govern the evolution of the indoor game. His suggestions have stood the pragmatic test on the basket ball courts at the University of Missouri and the University of Wisconsin. In the spring of 1924 he led the Badger team to its eighth championship of the Western Conference in twelve seasons of competition. His teams have been far famed for the side-to-side offense, the brilliant variations of the man-to-man defense, and the smooth handling of the ball in the short passing game. While at Missouri, before accepting the Wisconsin post, he developed Craig Ruby, one of the great stars of all time, a player whose later success as a coach at Missouri and Illinois was a high tribute to his former mentor.



618 Doctor Walter E. Meanwell, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE NATIONAL TOURNAMENT

The bonds between college and secondary school basket ball have been considerably strengthened during the last decade. Significant in this development have been the regional and state tournaments, sponsored by various colleges and universities at which scores of school-boy teams compete for championships. Most successful of all the tournaments has been the one inaugurated in 1919 by Coach Stagg at the University of Chicago. Every spring the splendid courts of Bartlett Gymnasium are used by the best representatives of basket ball which the high schools and academies of the country afford. From Maine to Washington and from North Dakota to Louisiana they come, eager to test their skill with that of leading teams in other sections. More than half the states of the Union are usually represented by fifty or more contesting teams. The gathering accomplishes more than a mere award of a national title to the successful five. It offers coaches and physical directors an opportunity to observe the various styles of play, for nowhere in the country is there gathered such an outstanding group of teams representing different ideas in the basket ball theory and demonstrating those ideas on the court. The tournament, therefore, is a laboratory of investigation and observation wherein new systems are tested and old ones revived. It tends to standardize the eligibility rules, for no school may compete which falls below the eligibility standard set by the tournament officials. Although there is constant danger that "playing the game to win" will be over-emphasized, there is at the same time evidence of the development of a fine spirit of sportsmanship through the interscholastic tournament.



619 Bartlett Gymnasium, University of Chicago, during a tournament, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

620 Early basket ball team of Smith College, from a photograph, courtesy of the Department of Physical Education, Smith College

BASKET BALL FOR GIRLS

THE interscholastic tournaments are arranged chiefly for boys' teams, but basket ball has become a sport for girls in all sections of the country. Slowly but surely the pedagogical value of team play has been recognized by those interested in the social education of women. They have found basket ball an invaluable aid in substituting coöperative effort for individualistic effort and in developing the normal girl's group consciousness beyond the restricted circle of the family. A few years after the game's invention it was made a part of the curriculum at Dr. Sargeant's school in Cambridge and Dr. Anderson's in New Haven, where the physical education of women received intelligent consideration. It was played at Smith College as early as 1892, becoming the most popular of all athletic diversions among the girls at Northampton. Bryn Mawr, Radcliffe, Vassar, and Lake Forest each modified the game to suit local conditions and ideas with the result that little interscholastic competition was possible. Variations were extreme in some institutions, Sophie Newcomb College in New Orleans using basic principles to devise a game known as basquette. In 1899 a conference of physical training teachers organized a national committee on rules which strove to secure uniformity. Teams were to be composed of not less than five nor more than ten players, preference being given to groups of six. The court was divided into three equal parts with two players from each team stationed in each zone and forbidden to cross the boundary lines in the course of play. These modifications of the men's game were intended to reduce the demand upon the player's strength and endurance but they were not universally adopted by the girls' teams throughout the country. A survey conducted by the American Physical Education Association in 1928, however, disclosed that only one in fifteen teams used the rules for boys in their interclass and interscholastic competition. Within recent years there has been a significant growth in intra-mural basket ball without a corresponding increase in contests scheduled between schools. Those responsible for the development of women's athletics have discouraged any attempt to place the emphasis upon the staging of a spectacle for the audience and have stressed the benefit to be derived from the outdoor as well as the indoor game.

621 Girls' basket ball at the University of Illinois, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

622 Basket ball at the Friends School, Washington, D. C., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

623 Hockey game between Holton Arms School and Marjorie Webster School, Washington, D. C., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

624 A hockey game at Bryn Mawr College, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

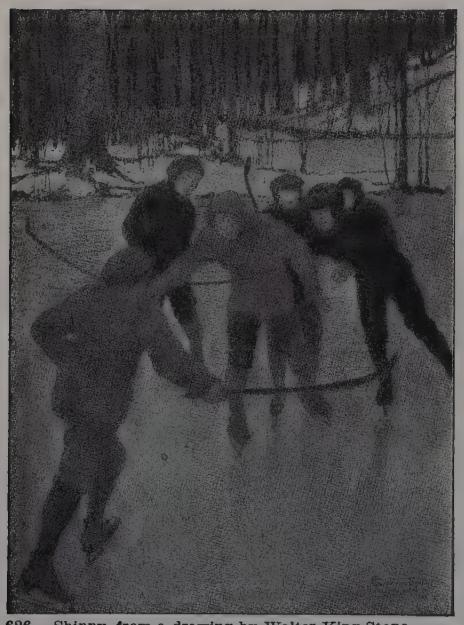
FEMININE HOCKEY ENTHUSIASTS

THE team play characteristic of basket ball finds expression also in field hockey, one of the most highly organized games played by girls today. On cold crisp afternoons it provides stimulating coöperative effort on any rectangular turf field. Eleven players to a side, each one armed with a stick resembling the shepherd's crook, strive to drive a small ball down the field and through the enemy's goal. From the "bully-off" between the opposing center forwards, until the ball has gone cleanly through the goal from a point in the "striking circle" which is the arc fifteen yards from the goal, there is abundant opportunity for that sort of team play which patterns itself after no set design but develops out of the exigency of the moment. For a quarter of a century American women, learning readily from English exponents, have played the game occasionally, but widespread participation by feminine enthusiasts dates really from the visit of the All-England Field Hockey Team in 1921. The tour of these British experts revived the waning interest in the game to such an extent that the clubs in Philadelphia and at Bryn Mawr organized the United States Field Hockey Association. Since January, 1922, the national organization has convinced many girls' schools in the country that hockey, though strenuous, is not an impossible game for women.

HOCKEY'S ANCIENT HERITAGE

FIELD hockey has an ancient heritage. Excavators at Athens in 1922 discovered a bas-relief, once part of the sea wall built by Themistocles almost five hundred years before the Christian era, which portrays the Greeks playing a game that must have been a precursor of modern hockey. Probably it had been played in Persia and other countries of Asia long before it became known to the Athenians. Certainly it was a small part of western Europe's heritage from the ancient Greeks. The Romans were familiar with a similar game and they may have carried it to the British Isles, for early in the Middle Ages hurley in Ireland, shinty in Scotland and bandy in England and Wales required a crooked stick and a small ball as the essential implements for the players who found rough sport in their contests.

625 Youths playing hockey, from a photograph of the relief on the Wall of Themistocles, Athens, in the *Archæological Journal*, 1922



626 Shinny, from a drawing by Walter King Stone and Phillipps Ward in *Outing*, December 1913

"SHINNY"

"The hurlinge of the litill balle with hockie stickes or staves" was well known in western Europe at the time the Old World sent its first pioneers across the Atlantic. In Canada the French inhabitants developed it as a game upon the ice; in the English colonies it became through the years one of the major sports of boyhood under the name of "shinny." Boys with the curved sticks swarmed to frozen pond and open field, using barrel bung, old tin can, or knob of wood as the necessary puck. There were no organized teams, any number of players participating. All rules were impromptu, the only fundamental principal being "shinny on your own side." He who failed to do so generally had a pair of sore shins for his offense. Withal it was exciting sport, especially when played by skaters on the ice. Often the game waxed so furious that darkness crept on stealthily and the puck was lost in the shadows before the youthful enthusiasts had abandoned the contest.

ICE HOCKEY

Ice hockey, like basket ball, is only a generation old in the United States. It has not been an evolution from the "shinny" of boyhood days. Rather is it an importation from Canada, where expert hockey was played long before the United States boasted an organized team. In 1895 a native of Montreal studying at Johns Hopkins formed a hockey club and arranged a match with a team from Quebec. During the same year the Shamrocks and the Montrealers played several exhibition games in Baltimore, Washington, and New York. The sport promptly secured support from various skating clubs with the result that in 1896 the American Amateur Hockey League was formed.

627 New York Athletic Club team, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

628 Ice hockey game between St. Nicholas and Yale teams, from a drawing by B. West Clinedinst in *Leslie's Weekly*, April 16, 1896

THE INDOOR GAME

Prominent in the development of indoor hockey on rinks of artificial ice were the New York Athletic Club, the St. Nicholas Skating Club of New York, and the Crescents of Brooklyn. Outside of New York the game found its strongest support in Pittsburgh, Boston, Cleveland, Chicago, and Minneapolis where rinks were built early in the present century. Canadian teams aroused enthusiasm because of the skill and dash of the players. At first many of the early teams in this country were recruited from persons of Canadian birth, but it was not long before the clubs could fill the seven positions with Americans whose clever passes, brilliant rushes, and quick checking were on a par with that of their northern rivals.

629 "Hobey" Baker, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

630 Dartmouth-Williams hockey game at Lake Placid, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE INTERCOLLEGIATE LEAGUE

While Johns Hopkins was developing its first hockey team in 1895, Malcolm G. Chace and Arthur E. Foote of Yale organized a group of Yale skaters to experiment with the Canadian game. Intercollegiate contests were arranged with the help of several of the New York amateur clubs and an intercollegiate hockey league was formed. The charter members were Brown, Columbia, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale, but Brown's place in the league was soon taken by Dartmouth. At first the game did not prosper greatly in the colleges because of the lack of expert skaters; but such stars as "Hobey" Baker at Princeton, George Owen at Harvard, and Jenkins at Yale kept interest alive in the East. Within the last two years its popularity has increased so rapidly that it may yet become a major intercollegiate sport.

PROFESSIONAL HOCKEY

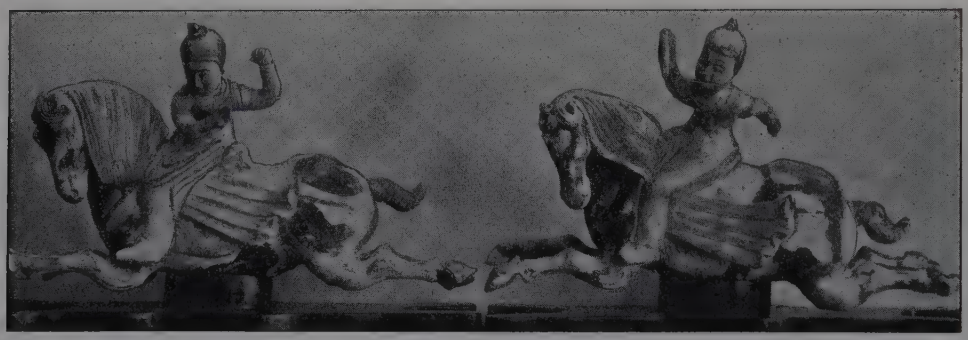
In 1926 professional hockey, with the rover dropped, was revived in the United States. It caught the popular fancy immediately, drawing crowds limited only by the capacity of the indoor rinks. Though the majority of spectators knew little about the fine points of the ice game, they found it to be a sport of bodily contact played at top speed. The swift dashes of the forwards and the daring stops of the goal keeper offered constant thrills. The flashing of the skates and the expert handling of the puck were made the more attractive by the danger inherent in the very nature of the game. The sport's roughness was no deterrent to its popularity. Within the National Professional Hockey League two groups have been formed. The first, known as the International, consists of four Canadian teams and the New York Americans. The second, or American Group, is composed of teams representing New York, Boston, Pittsburgh, Detroit, and Chicago. In 1928 the New York Rangers won the Stanley Cup, emblematic of the world's championship. The success of the professional sport augurs well for its revival in amateur circles.

631 New York Rangers practicing in Madison Square Garden, New York, from a photograph by International Newsreel, New York

632 Persian polo, from a painting found in the palace of the King of Oudh, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

OUT OF THE EAST

Polo, like hockey, came out of the East, where it had flourished since the days of the Medes and the Persians. In Tibet, in India, and in China it was known by various names, but everywhere the game was played on horseback with mallets and a ball. From the Tibetan word "pulu," meaning willow, came the Anglicized polo of modern times. British officers learned to play in India finding the sport better suited to the climate than cricket, for it was less time-consuming and had not then developed into a dashing display of horsemanship. Shortly after the Sepoy Rebellion polo received the stamp of Indian official approval, clubs being formed in Calcutta, Cawnpore, and Peshawar in 1863. At the same time army officers and civilians returning to England introduced the game, and it found ready acceptance at Hurlingham. Keen regimental rivalry kept high the standard of play.



633 Polo figures from an ancient Chinese grave, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood of the original in the Field Museum, Chicago

BEGINNINGS OF AMERICAN POLO

In the spring of 1875 James Gordon Bennett, Jr., having watched the Hurlingham Club play in England, returned to the United States well supplied with polo mallets and balls as well as a determination to promote the sport in his native land. At a banquet with such friends as William Jay, William Douglas, Perry Belmont, and W. K. Thorn, he secured support for his plans to bring a carload of cow ponies from Texas and train them. As a result of Bennett's initiative the first polo game in the United States was played indoors in the winter of 1876 at the Dickel Riding Academy, then situated on Fifth Avenue at Thirty-ninth Street. During the year matches were played at the Jerome Park Race Course and two clubs were formed: the Westchester Polo Club whose quarters were not far from Jerome Park, and the New York Polo Club which brought the sport to the attention of the Newport summer colony.

634 Polo at Jerome Park, from a drawing by Berghaus and Schimpf in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, June 24, 1876

EASTERN POLO CLUBS

635 Polo on the grounds of the Manhattan Polo Association, from a drawing in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, June 12, 1880

Among expert horsemen and wealthy supporters of the turf polo speedily won devotees. The enthusiastic work of H. L. Herbert and James Gordon Bennett, Jr., was seconded by August Belmont, Pierre Lorillard, Carrol Bryce, Foxhall Keene, and the leading members of the eastern hunt clubs. The Westchester and New York clubs were soon joined by the Queens County Polo Club, the Buffalo Polo Club, and the Manhattan Polo Club. Popular curiosity impelled the Board of Park Commissioners in Brooklyn to open Prospect Park to the sport and one of the earliest public matches was played there, in June 1879, between teams representing the Westchester and Queens County clubs. English rules were used, but the mounts were not English trained. Any sort of western pony whose stamina had been proved served these early American players. Their polo was not of a finished sort nor was their equipment so good as that of their English contemporaries.

THE HURLINGHAM INVASION

The English brought the raw materials of polo out of India and gave definite plan to the game; the Americans, abandoning the off-side rule, developed a fast, hard-hitting sport, filled with daring generalship. But the perfection of the American system came slowly. Our team was no match for the British representatives of the Hurlingham Club, who played the first international match at Newport on August 25, 1886. "The grounds," says a contemporary account, "were lined with drags and carts, and all the catalogue of jappaned and magnificent vehicles; there was no end of beautiful faces, and the raiment was bewildering." Before the notable company Thomas Hitchcock, Captain W. K. Thorn, Foxhall Keene, and Raymond Belmont were compelled to lower their colors to the English four. The perfection of the English teamwork and the superior horsemanship of the visiting players were conspicuous, but the aggressive and free-handed play of the losers was encouraging. Though the Hurlingham invaders returned to England with the international trophy, they left behind them a string of well-trained ponies and an impressive example of the use of horsemanship and team play in polo.

636 International Polo Tournament at Newport, from a drawing by Thure de Thulstrup in *Harper's Weekly*, September 4, 1886

637 Championship cup of the United States Polo Association, from a photograph in *Rider and Driver*, October 19, 1895

POLO IN THE WEST

The first international match aroused new interest in polo among those who could afford so expensive an outdoor diversion. Several eastern clubs initiated plans which resulted in the formation of the United States Polo Association in 1890, which supervised inter-club matches for the national championship cup. Although a majority of important polo teams were in the eastern states the sport had its devotees in the Mississippi Valley and on the Pacific Coast. During the 'eighties Englishmen were responsible for the formation of clubs at Colorado Springs, New Orleans, Los Angeles, and Sioux City and Sibley, Iowa. They also established breeding farms on the western ranges to utilize cow-pony stock in the days when polo mounts were really "pony" size. As height restrictions were removed and larger mounts became popular, these farms were abandoned.

DEVELOPING THE AMERICAN SYSTEM

Between 1886 and 1909 only one official attempt was made to bring the international trophy back to the United States. In 1902 a challenge was accepted by the British and three matches were played on the grounds at Hurlingham. The challengers won only one match out of the three, but those spectators who studied the men, mounts and methods saw that American polo was developing along lines distinctly different from the traditionally British style of play. They commented upon the apparently reckless, hard-riding attack of Agassiz, Cowdin, and Larry Waterbury in the forward positions and the ability of the Americans to interchange positions without disturbing team play. The broad front of the quartette from the United States, with the players riding in offensive and defensive pairs, differed radically from the long formation of the British, who formed a procession down the field. In horsemanship the Americans were still inferior, overcoming the expert "riding off" ability of their opponents by sheer speed and daring. This notable distinction justified the comment of one critic that the "British play polo in order to ride, the Americans ride in order to play polo."

638 Second of the International Polo Matches at Hurlingham, June 9, 1902, from a drawing in *The Illustrated London News*, June 14, 1902

THE BIG FOUR

639 Devereux Milburn, Harry Payne Whitney, Monty Waterbury and Larry Waterbury, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

At Meadowbrook in 1909 Harry Payne Whitney organized the quartette which brought victory to our colors in the international matches. Mounting his men on the best thoroughbreds which the country afforded, he developed a team well aware of the value of coöperation and the necessity of expert mallet work. Behind the remarkable forward combination of the Waterbury brothers, Larry and Monty, were Whitney at No. 3 and Milburn at back. As field general Whitney had no superior in the country, while his clever maneuvering stamped him as a horseman of high accomplishment. Devereux Milburn was a well-nigh perfect goal keeper, his long forehand and backhand drives fed the forwards down the field with an accuracy that was astonishing. Nor were his forceful drives wasted, for the Waterbury brothers displayed a type of mallet work that passed the ball quickly into scoring distance and hit the goal with marvelous regularity in the international matches.

WINNING AND LOSING THE CUP

The first great test of the "Big Four" came in 1909 when they invaded the enemy's country at Hurlingham. The British veterans went down to defeat while all England looked on in amazement. Riding with utter abandon, hitting with terrific force, and displaying remarkable team work, the Americans overcame the shrewd, conservative system based upon wonderful horsemanship, which was peculiar to the British game. This phenomenal Meadowbrook combination remained intact for four years, repelling two attempts to recover the cup, now a symbol of national prestige. When the challengers returned for the third time in 1914 with a team recruited from the finest players in the British Army, Whitney had retired from play and the Americans could find no arrangement of Milburn, the Waterburys, and René La Montagne which reproduced the effective power of the earlier quartette. Though Milburn in these matches accomplished the impossible, thundering down the field and driving the ball with long accurate strokes toward the goal, his spectacular performances could not compensate for the team work which had been the glory of the "Big Four."

640 A side shot off the boards during a polo game at Lakewood, New Jersey, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

641 The Meadowbrook team of 1927 in the opening game for the International Challenge Cup, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE ASCENDANCY OF THE UNITED STATES

The British victory in 1914 was but an interlude in the high drama of American polo ascendancy. For seven years no international matches were arranged, but with the return of peace polo enthusiasts, and they were now legion, prepared for the reconquest of the trophy. Of the veteran players only Devereux Milburn was left in active play and his remarkable abilities were utilized to the fullest extent. His furious speed in checking enemy drives and his extraordinarily long range of action on attack determined a change of strategy, for his play transformed the back into a dashing rover daring to carry on his own offensive campaign, though never failing to watch the thin line of the goal. Supporting the fiery Milburn on the 1921 team were J. Watson Webb at No. 3 and Louis E. Stoddard and Thomas Hitchcock, Jr., in the forward positions. Hitchcock, a worthy son of the hard-riding member of the first international team, soon demonstrated that his audacity on the field exceeded his father's. He and Milburn became the sources of power on the American quartettes, his team-mates adapting their methods so as to "feed" the ball to the brilliant young forward who seldom failed. In 1921 the International Cup was won from the English defenders and has been held ever since. Teams from England made gallant bids for the trophy in 1924 and 1927 but the Meadowbrook teams, relying on Hitchcock, Milburn, and Malcolm Stevenson, prevented the challengers from breaking through to victory.

THE ARGENTINE CHALLENGE

A striking indication of the popular interest in polo was afforded by the visit of the challenging Argentine four in 1928. Entering the field of international competition six years earlier, they had won victories both in the Americas and in Europe under the leadership of Lewis Lacey. When their match with the Meadowbrook cup defenders was delayed for a month by inclement weather and an epidemic of influenza among the Argentine ponies the entire country seemed to wait with bated breath for the contest. It proved to be a battle royal, the Argentine players losing the first game and winning the second by narrow margins. For the crucial test more than forty thousand spectators were banked around the bright green turf to watch the superb horsemanship of Lewis Lacey, his furious ranging of the entire field, and his mastery of a swift and certain backhand drive reminiscent of the great Milburn in his prime. But they saw something more thrilling than the work of the Argentine back — the triumph of a newly formed quartette which stood off every effort of the challengers. In the final game Stevenson was dropped. His position at No. 3 was taken by Hitchcock while Averell Harriman and Earle Hopping at the forward posts and Winston Guest at back completed a perfectly adjusted team. With their colors flying in the breeze they delighted their thousands of supporters by the reckless daring of their riding, the furious pace of their teamwork and the certain destination of their long shots down the field.

642 Second International Polo Match between the United States and Argentine teams, 1928, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

INDOOR POLO

THE first polo played in America was indoor polo, for no suitable outdoor fields were available when James Gordon Bennett interested his wealthy friends in the sport. For many years after 1876 the old Dickel's Riding Academy, situated at Thirty-eighth Street on Fifth Avenue, afforded the tanbark surface over springy clay which was considered ideal for the game. Played by three men instead of four, with a soft ball somewhat larger than the hard willow of outdoor polo, the indoor sport did not keep pace with the long passing, galloping game of the open field. By those who had experienced the thrill of play on the turf, the tanbark arena was held in disdain.

643 Indoor Polo Team, Brooklyn Riding and Driving Club, from a photograph by the Price Picture News, New York, courtesy of the Club

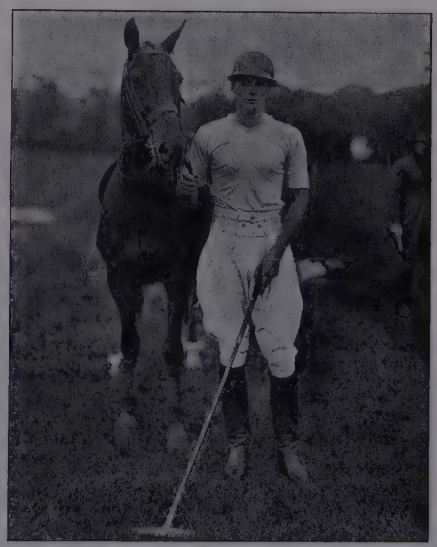
RECRUITING NEW PLAYERS

WITH the formation of the Indoor Polo Association of United States in 1915 popular interest in the sport grew rapidly. Those who could not afford the expensive equipment of the outdoor game found that the cost of the indoor variety was more reasonable. Among the cavalry units of the National Guard participation was encouraged by the fact that mounts are provided by the Government, the player's expense being limited to the cost of mallets, hat, and auxiliary equipment. Spectators enjoy the intimacy of the riding ring, since they are close enough to see the fine points of play which are lost on larger fields. Though the smashing tactics of a Milburn are seldom seen, there is abundant opportunity for brilliant team work and for deft strokes which score goals more frequently than hard drives. Play is never interrupted for fouls, each offense counting one-half point off the offender's score. For a decade the rolls of the national association have been augmented by eastern clubs with an ever-increasing membership. In 1928 the national open tournament attracted thirty-six teams from Illinois, Ohio, and Michigan, as well as from New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania.

644 Polo Team of the Pennsylvania Military College, Chester, Pa., from a photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, New York

SKILLED PLAYERS

THOUGH few of the experts at the outdoor game play indoors, there are certain notable exceptions. Winston Guest, who played back against the Argentine four, is one of the two or three top goal men in the country. His hitting ability while he was in college was largely responsible for Yale's long reign as intercollegiate indoor champion. Another member of the international cup team who delights in riding the tanbark is W. Averell Harriman. Perhaps the most interesting of the indoor performers is Gerald Smith of Brooklyn. He is not a veteran like Harriman or Archer W. Kenny, but he is an excellent horseman who can combine smashing drives with easy, angled shots in a manner to confound the opposition and delight the most discriminating spectators.



645 Winston C. Guest, from a photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, New York

CHAPTER XI

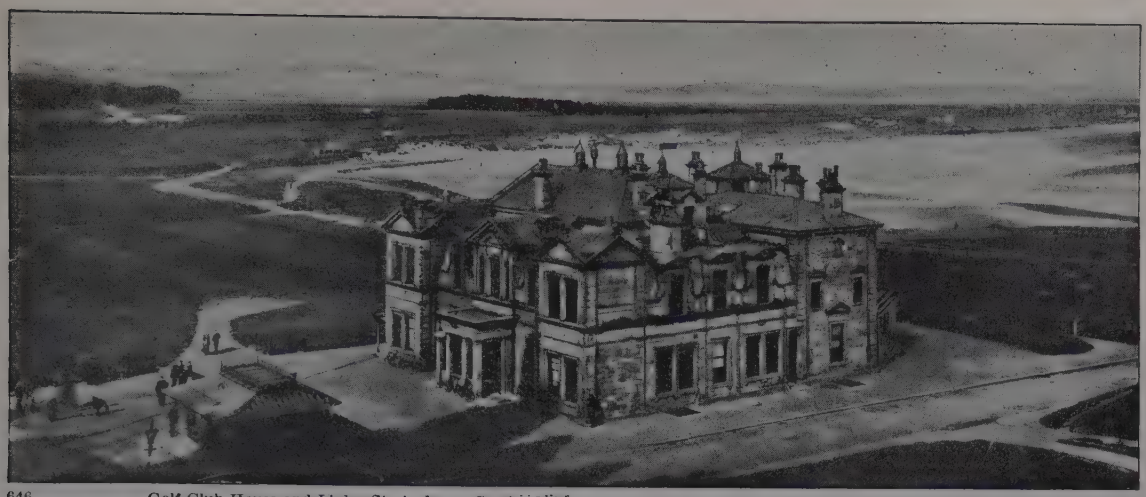
GOLF AND THE COUNTRY CLUB

AMERICANS are recent converts to golf. Though a similar game was known and played, as we have seen, in New Netherland during the seventeenth century, golf's importance among our sports dates from the tournament at Newport in 1894, when thirty amateurs competed at medal play for the first national championship. That little band represented several hundred in the country who had been initiated into the mysteries of the royal game. Their enthusiasm was the object of much good-natured ridicule at first, but within twenty years, under the leadership of the Scots, the fairways and greens were invaded by thousands, all eager to learn. During the decade since the World War, an era of unprecedented prosperity, the army of American golfers has increased from thousands to millions. Private clubs and associations controlling more than four thousand courses, exclusive of municipal links, have carried the game into every corner of the land.

One of golf's attractive features is the opportunity which it affords the player for self-expression. He is under no compulsion to subordinate himself to a team, or to coördinate his efforts with those of other players. He is not subject to the long continued strain of attacking an enemy's position or defending his own against assault. Yet there is competition of the keenest sort in golf. Each player soon discovers that he is his own most formidable opponent. Innumerable mental hazards, more difficult than the physical ones, are obstacles to be overcome along the entire course. These creations conjured up by the mind often determine success or failure on the links. They constitute a continual challenge even to the player whose game entitles him to rank high among the nation's golfers.

Despite its individualistic basis, golf wields a powerful influence over social relations. The foursome of casual acquaintances is often the beginning of an abiding friendship, as the game revealingly tests the temperament and character of its devotees. For the modern business man the links have become an invaluable substitute for the conference room and the council table. There contacts are made; plans have their inception; old business alliances are broken and new ones consummated. This may be but the fashion of the moment, yet its effects upon the banker and lawyer, the broker and merchant, upon all who have been governed by the routine of office and shop, are none the less significant.

In his philosophic treatise on the *Mystery of Golf* Arnold Haultain delightfully describes the drama of the game, staged always amid scenery which only nature can supply. There is Act I, the Drive, with its appropriate setting: the gallery, the attendant caddies and at long holes the brassy shots. Act II may be called the Approach, an interesting episode with problems of the lie, the hazard, and the character of the ground. For Act III there is the putt, played against a background of green. It reaches a climax in the nervous tension of the players, fearful of the peculiarities of the turf and the possibilities of a stymie. Eighteen such dramas in every round, some farcical, others tragic. Nor does the golfer ever tire of the natural stage upon which his outdoor dramas are played.



646 Golf Club House and Links, St. Andrews, Scotland, from a photograph, courtesy of Charles Blair Macdonald

ST. ANDREWS

THE annals of golf in America clearly reveal the Scottish influence. During the years that stolid Dutch burghers were playing "Kolf" occasionally in New Netherland, the Scots were acquainting the English with a much more elaborate game played with clubs and a small ball. It had been played so long on the heather-covered hills that Scotland's chroniclers insisted it was native to the soil. They admitted that the name had been derived from the Dutch word for club just as the ball had once been imported from Dutch makers, but they cited town records, church registers, and Acts of Parliament in defense of their claim that golf was Scotland's own adaptation of such ancient games as bandy, hurley, and shinty. Certain it is that the game was played on the common lands by villagers and townspeople long before the Stuarts gave it the stamp of royal approval. At St. Andrews there was a course as early as 1552, though the club which now bears the name was not formally organized until 1754. Since that time the St. Andrews Golf Club has become by virtue of seniority and prestige the arbiter of golf procedure and etiquette throughout the world.

THE SCOTTISH INFLUENCE

GOLF came to English America from St. Andrews. The records of the eighteenth century reveal slight evidence of the game on this side of the Atlantic. In Albany the city authorities in 1760 banned golf on the Sabbath, though the sport could not have been important in the English town which had developed out of the old Dutch trading post. In New York, where Dutch and Scottish strains were prominent before the Revolution, the records yield no trace of organized clubs. From Charleston, South Carolina, in 1795 comes the first intimation of a golf club with an established course and club house. In that year the club house on Harleston's Green, now in the heart of the city, was the scene of an anniversary gathering of members, many of them Scots, in response to the call of the secretary. Georgia also had its golfers, for Savannah displayed civic pride in a club which met regularly on East Common, holding its banquets and balls as part of the activities of the social season. After 1818 its meetings were no longer chronicled. Augusta likewise, at the close of the eighteenth century, supported a golf club. For three-quarters of a century, however, golf in the United States was confined to putting on the green by Scottish and English immigrants and visitors. If there were any regulation links they have escaped the antiquarian and the historian.

N O T I C E.

THE Anniverſary of the GOLF CLUB will be held on Saturday next, at the Club Houſe, on Harleſton's Green, where the Members are requeſted to attend at one o'clock.

William Milligan, ſecretary.

October 13. tus 2

647 Early golf in the South, from an announcement in the Charleston *City Gazette*, October 13, 1795

648 John Reid, from the portrait by Frank Fowler, courtesy of the St. Andrews Golf Club

JOHN REID, PATRON OF GOLF

In 1888 Robert Lockhart, a native Scot who had prospered in his adopted country, returned to Scotland to visit the hills and glens he had known in childhood. In Edinburgh he heard his friends sing the praises of that great golfer, the elder Tom Morris. At St. Andrews he watched play on the oldest and most famous course in Great Britain. When he set sail for the United States he carried with him a dozen golf clubs and a number of gutta-percha balls, which since 1848 had supplanted the "featheries"; as the feather-stuffed balls of an earlier date were called. Thus equipped he appeared in Yonkers, New York, and proceeded to initiate his friend, John Reid, into the mysteries of the ancient and royal game. To Reid there was naught but merit in the time-honored customs of the Scots. With alacrity he decided to make golf from his beloved Scotland a boon to his fellow Americans.

649 The first St. Andrews club house, Yonkers, from a photogravure, courtesy of the St. Andrews Golf Club

THE AMERICAN ST. ANDREWS

With John B. Upham, Harry O. Talmadge, Harry Holbrook, Kingman Putnam, and a few other friends, John Reid formed the St. Andrews Golf Club of Yonkers on November 14, 1888. There was no elaborate equipment provided for these pioneers. Six holes were laid out in the vicinity of Reid's home, and an old apple tree near the first tee served as an impromptu club house. Yet from the beginning the amenities of the game were observed just as they were several years later, when the club moved into elegant quarters in the northern part of Westchester county.

LONG ISLAND GOLFERS

During the same year that the St. Andrews Golf Club of Yonkers was organized Horace Hutchinson, coming from England, attempted to interest the Meadowbrook Hunt Club in the game. His persuasive efforts, illustrated in his best golf manner, were all in vain. But two years later Duncan Cryder and Edward S. Mead learned on the links at Biarritz, and were sufficiently impressed to enlist the support of Samuel L. Parrish in an effort to introduce the sport at Southhampton, Long Island. Through their enthusiasm some forty men and women were persuaded to purchase stock in the first incorporated golf club in the country. In September 1891, the Shinnecock Hills Golf Club purchased eighty acres of land in the Shinnecock Hills and laid out a nine-hole course subsequently enlarged to twelve and then to eighteen holes.

650 Club House of the Shinnecock Hills Golf Club in 1892, from a contemporary water-color sketch, courtesy of the United States Golf Association

651 The Shinnecock Hills Golf Club House, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

AT SHINNECOCK HILLS

In 1892 while the St. Andrews men were still playing their original six-hole course, the Shinnecock Hills Club occupied a unique position in American golf. It was the only association in the country owning sufficient land to construct an eighteen-hole course. It already possessed twelve holes properly laid out by a professional, and its handsome club house had just been completed. The course lay over close-cropped turf, affording fine lies for the ball, and abounded in natural hazards and sand bunkers. From the fairways and greens the golfer had a satisfying view. To the south stretched the waters of Shinnecock Bay separated from the ocean by a narrow strip of beach incessantly pounded by the surf. North of the links lay Peconic Bay, a long arm of the sea reaching toward the Shinnecock Hills. Rolling away to the east were wooded knolls gradually disappearing in a purplish haze that enveloped hill and valley in the distance. In the beauty of the setting was a certain compensation for those who were ever in trouble with bunkers and whose drives were apt to go into the rough.

652 Charles Blair Macdonald, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

CHICAGO'S AWAKENING

The rôle of John Reid of St. Andrews was taken by Charles B. Macdonald in the evolution of golf in Chicago. Educated in Scotland, he returned to this country in 1878 and tried to interest his friends in the game which he had played on the links at old St. Andrews. Few would listen, and those who did were frankly bored by his incessant talk of golf. Then came in 1893 the World's Fair at Chicago. To the city on the shores of Lake Michigan it opened many new vistas and among them was the ancient Scottish game. The Commissioner General in charge of Great Britain's interests at the Fair was Sir Henry Wood, an enthusiastic golfer. In his retinue came a small host of college men who had played at their respective universities. They became so many advocates of golf and Charles B. Macdonald quickly capitalized their influence to form the Chicago Golf Club at Belmont twenty-four miles from the city. There Macdonald, who had constructed a short course at Lake Forest the previous year, laid out a good eighteen-hole course in 1893 which served the club until it moved to Wheaton. Its membership, originally recruited from persons of English and Scottish descent, soon included many of Chicago's financial and industrial leaders.

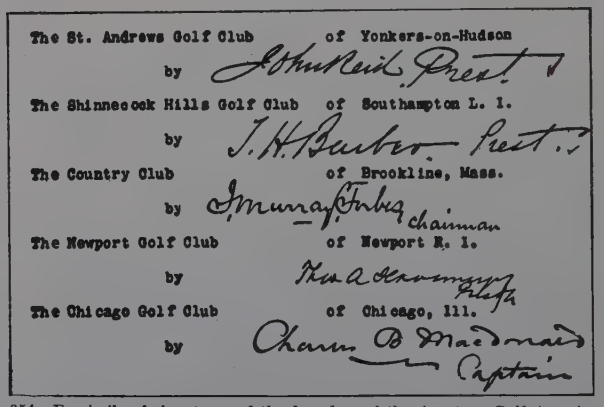
653 First American championship cup, won by Charles Blair Macdonald at Newport, 1895, from Charles Blair Macdonald, *Scotland's Gift — Golf*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1928

THE FIRST TOURNAMENTS

THOUGH the elect of society at Newport had not introduced golf to the nation they promptly accepted it as a new diversion worthy of their attention. From the Newport Golf Club came an invitation to all amateurs in 1894 to compete in a national tournament for the amateur championship. A few weeks later St. Andrews announced a similar nation-wide competition also to determine the leading player in the country. The thirty golfers who met at Newport competed at medal play, according to which the winner was he who used the fewest strokes in making thirty-six holes on the course. William G. Lawrence, who had learned his golf at Pau, turned in a score of 188 to lead the field. At St. Andrews competition was based upon match play, the golfers being pitted against each other in a series of elimination contests in which the victor was determined by the number of holes won. Though Lawrence entered the St. Andrews tournament, he failed to maintain at match play the form which he had shown at Newport. L. B. Stoddart defeated Charles B. Macdonald in the finals. Immediately the small circle of golfers in the country was thrown into a spirited controversy over whether Lawrence or Stoddart held the championship — a controversy which seemed to point to the necessity of a central supervising body to regulate national tournaments.

THE AMATEUR GOLF ASSOCIATION

THE disagreement over the amateur championship in the summer of 1894 was brought to an end before the year had passed. In December H. O. Tallmadge of the St. Andrews golf club entertained at dinner ten representatives of the more important golf clubs — the St. Andrews, Shinnecock Hills, Newport, Chicago, and Brookline clubs. They pledged their respective clubs as founders of the Amateur Golf Association of the United States. Recognizing the premier position of St. Andrews across the sea, they agreed to accept its rules as binding in the United States. Two questions were settled by the Association at its early conferences — the type of national tournament and the definition of an amateur. It approved an annual tournament for amateurs to be decided by match play and an open tournament where professionals and amateurs might compete on equal terms at medal play. The line of demarcation was sharply drawn between amateur and professional and from the outset the Association frowned upon those who, while preserving the letter of the law, violated its spirit.



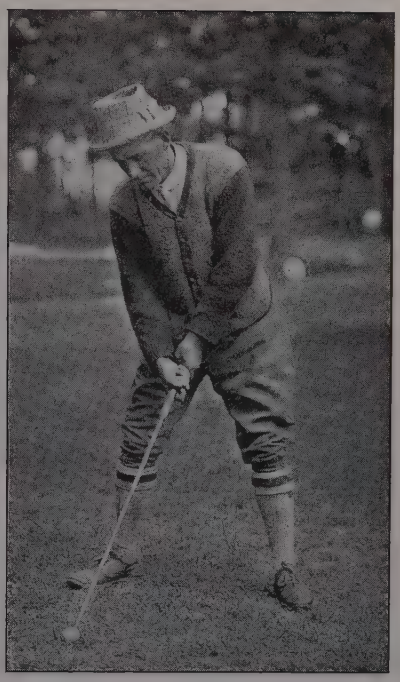
654 Facsimile of signatures of the founders of the Amateur Golf Association, from Charles Blair Macdonald, *Scotland's Gift — Golf*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1928

655 Findlay S. Douglas, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE SCOTS SUPREME

IN the early tournaments of the national organization, which soon took the name of the United States Golf Association, the Scots drove down the fairways to victory with monotonous regularity. Native players with more energy than skill strove in vain to prove their mastery of the game. After Charles B. Macdonald won the amateur title in 1895, H. J. Whigham, who had also learned at St. Andrews, appeared with his wooden putter to win his victories in the short play on the greens. For two years he held the championship, yielding in 1898 to Findlay S. Douglas another graduate of the links of Scotland. But the American-born golfers were offering strong competition.

WALTER J. TRAVIS



656 Walter J. Travis, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

AMONG the contestants in the early amateur tournaments none had displayed a more consistent game than Walter J. Travis, Australian by birth and American by adoption. His tee shots flew down the course like an arrow, while his approaches rarely deviated from the appointed direction. But it was the click of his putter that usually sounded the doom of his opponent. On the green he possessed an astonishing precision in dropping the ball into the cup. Having reached the semi-finals in several tournaments, Travis justified the faith of his friends in 1900 by winning the national amateur title. For the next three years he remained in the front rank of American golfers. In 1902 L. N. James defeated him in the title competition, but the master putter returned to power the following year. The greatest victory of his career was not won on an American course. In 1904 he qualified for the British Amateur matches and won the championship by his extraordinary putting. With a wizardry on the greens which few golfers have ever possessed he sank twenty-foot putts as accurately as if the ball had been a few feet from the pin.

WESTWARD EXPANSION

DURING the days of Travis' championship a tradition was developing that the winner of the amateur tournament sponsored by the Metropolitan Golf Association was apt to be the national champion. While it was true that a majority of the greatest golfers in the country were members of clubs within a radius of fifty miles from New York City, the game was by no means restricted to such narrow limits. In the Middle West the clubs were found in the larger cities, which drew upon the surrounding countryside to keep their membership lists filled. Chicago, like New York, had become a center of golf enthusiasm with its wealthy suburban population financing exclusive clubs and attractive courses. Beyond the Mississippi there was no region to rival California in its devotion to the Scottish game. In 1900 there were twenty golf clubs in the state, several with eighteen-hole courses. Antedating all others was the Riverside Polo and Golf Club with links constructed in 1894. At San Diego one might play over the ravine known as the Cañon du Diable which required a carry of one hundred and thirty yards. The picturesque and sporty course of the Santa Catalina Club at Avalon offered hazards and natural difficulties so great that only one artificial bunker was necessary. Los Angeles, Pasadena and San Francisco had set their links amid great scenic beauty, where mountains and sea afforded a background that never palled.

657 Feather River Park Golf Course, California, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

658 Golf course at Miami, from a photograph by W. A. Fishbaugh

ON SOUTHERN LINKS

Wherever the wealthy sought relief from the rigors of a northern winter in the balmy sunshine of the South, there golf appeared as a profitable phase of leisure. Jacksonville, Palm Beach, and St. Augustine, Florida, Aiken, Georgia, and Columbia, South Carolina, offered excellent courses before Long Island had become the golfer's paradise. The builders of these southern links understood that something more than perfect greens and good turf fairways was essential. They realized how important to the player are his surroundings. They sought to soothe him with the sight of the distant hills, the breaking of the surf along the beach, or the song of the birds in the bordering woodland. In such a setting winter golf became one of the attractions of the Southland.

"THE DUDE ERA"

Despite the rapidity with which clubs were organized and courses constructed, golf was not a popular game ten years after the national association began its work of supervision. The expansion of interest had taken place only among the wealthier classes. To the "man on the street" golf was both unintelligible and mystifying. He was inclined to scoff at the spectacle of grown men pushing little balls into small holes in the ground. He was amused by the queer clubs with strange names, the scarlet jackets, the large-patterned knickerbockers and the gayly-colored stockings of the golfer. The presence of the caddy gave him an impression of "flunkeyism" which he greatly disliked. There was something undemocratic as well as effeminate about the whole proceeding. He dismissed it as a sport fit only for "sissies" and "dudes." Of the charm of the links he was utterly ignorant. This derisive laughter probably retarded the game's expansion, for there were many who suppressed a desire to play rather than become the objects of their neighbors' ridicule.

659 From a cartoon by Ehrhart in *Puck*, July 21, 1899

660 Horace L. Hotchkiss (left) and the Reverend J. McBride Sterrett, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE SENIORS' ASSOCIATION

Many who came to the golf course to scoff, remained to learn. Such conversions were particularly numerous among older men of established reputations in other sports. In them the play instinct lived on long after they had been removed to the sidelines as too old to participate. They discovered that golf was a great outdoor game which age could enjoy. As a restorative of the spirit of youth it was without an equal. So thought the older members of the Apawamis Club at Rye, New York, when they organized the Seniors' Association in 1904. The movement to "vanquish time on the links" was inaugurated by Horace L. Hotchkiss with the coöperation of Darwin P. Kingsley, Frank Presbrey and Walter Brown. In the Association's tournaments none under fifty-five years of age may compete. Within twenty years the Seniors enrolled six hundred members and had a waiting list of more than two hundred who were determined to continue in active competition.

THE GALLERY INCREASES

661 Gallery at the Morris County Country Club, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

One of the peculiar glories of golf is the fact that it is not now and never will be a sport primarily for spectators. It offers little for the "rocking chair athlete" and those who take their exercise by proxy. Though the galleries following championship matches increased considerably during the first decade of the present century, it was not a sign that the sport had become an earner of large gate receipts. The spectators at golf tournaments are normally players themselves. If they follow the play consistently they secure nearly as much exercise as the participants. The increasing gallery means not vicarious sport, but better golf on scores of courses throughout the country.

CHAMPIONS FROM THE WEST

The records of the Western Golf Association from its organization in 1899 contained the names of two indomitable golfers — W. E. Egan and H. Chandler Egan. Between them they won the Western Amateur title for five successive years. In 1904 H. C. Egan took the national championship with his long drives and accurate approach shots, and defended the title successfully the following year. While his game was still at its best he met in several matches a young member of the Edgewater Golf Club, who was destined to become the greatest amateur golfer ever sent by the Middle West to a national tournament. Charles Evans, Jr., known to his legion of admirers as "Chick," played the game with a rhythmic style that was beautiful to watch. Possessed of superb technical skill he found no difficulty in round after round of stroke play against "old man par." In match play all was different. Nervousness seemed to send his putting off on a tangent with such disastrous results that his defeat was written on the greens. Golf became for him what it has been for so many — a struggle to conquer himself. Eventually he won. Four times after 1908 he won the Western Amateur Championship only to fall before his mental hazard in the national competition. Then in 1916 "Chick" Evans thrilled his followers, who had long anticipated his triumph, by winning both the National Open and National Amateur titles. His mastery of the irons and his expertness with the wooden clubs had been matched by the accuracy of his putting on the once treacherous greens.

662 Charles Evans, Jr., in a trap at the 18th green during match with Ouimet, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

663 Jerome D. Travers, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

JEROME D. TRAVERS

WHILE the western golfers watched the drama of Evans' contests on the links, the position of primacy among American amateurs was held by Jerome D. Travers. He had literally grown up with golf. As a boy on Long Island he watched the Nassau Golf Club develop. Its professional Alex Smith, twice National Open champion, became his tutor. Under his guidance he early learned the importance of proper form in executing the strokes which win contests. In 1903 at the age of sixteen he entered the competition for the National Amateur title. Those were the days when he worshiped at the feet of Walter J. Travis, whom he was later to defeat. From his earliest tournament Travers manifested unique ability in match competition. Unlike Evans he was calm and collected in the presence of a personal opponent and he played a better game than he did when the issue was decided by the number of strokes for the course. Beginning in 1907 he won four amateur championships in the national tournaments, winning his last great victory at Baltusrol in 1915, when he demonstrated a latent ability at medal play by leading the field in the National Open.

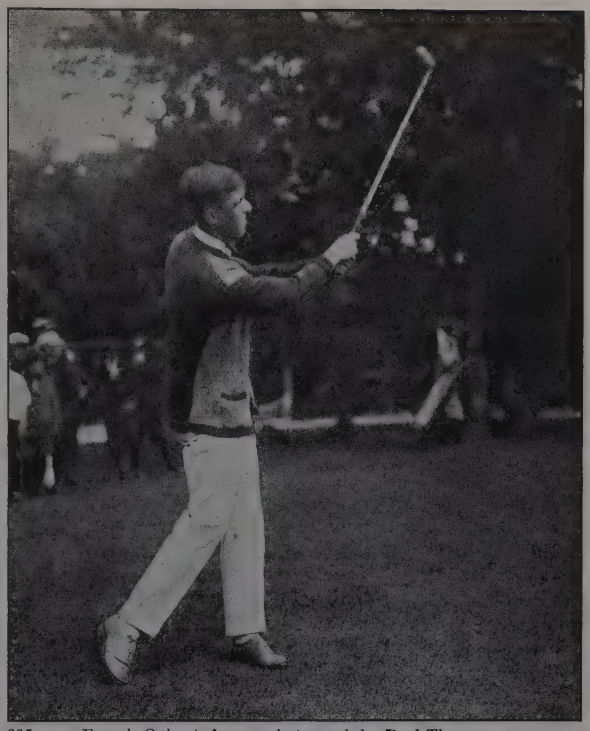
HARRY H. HILTON

WHILE the career of Travers, who won his first championship when he was twenty-one, was dispelling the idea that golf was an old man's game, President Taft's fondness for the links was bringing the putting green and the fairway to the attention of many Americans as they pored over their daily papers. Then in 1911, Harold H. Hilton announced his decision to compete for the amateur title in the United States. A representative of the finest traditions of the links, three times British Amateur champion, Hilton brought golf to the front page of American dailies. Editorials discussed his technique and temperament; sports writers acclaimed him as a genius with brassy and spoon; expert golfers paid tribute to the perfection of his chips to the green. By the time of the national tournament the press had made him a veritable superman, but his task on the Apawamis course was by no means easy, since he met the best amateurs in the country. The early matches did not seem to test his ability but he finally met his peer. His opponent in the final round was neither Jerome Travers nor Robert A. Gardner, nor William C. Fownes, Jr., all former title holders, but Fred Herreshoff, whose destiny it was to be the runner-up in many a championship match. For Hilton it was the supreme test, since Herreshoff playing at the peak of his game was not defeated until the last putt had been sunk on the eighteenth green.

664 Harold H. Hilton, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

FRANCIS OUIMET

BETWEEN 1910 and 1915 golf became a vital element in the recreation of the American people. The little band which had tramped over the courses at the dawn of the present century had grown to an army of more than three hundred thousand in a decade, but the game was still scorned by millions who would not abandon earlier prejudices. Perhaps no one was more responsible for the disappearance of prejudice and the change of sentiment which swept thousands on to the links than Francis Ouimet. With spectacular suddenness he burst upon the country as the boy prodigy of golf. In 1910 he was a caddie on the links of the Woodland Golf Club at Auburndale, Massachusetts; three years later the whole world of golf was at his feet. A nineteen-year-old youth with an impassive temperament, who could confound his elders with the deftness and smoothness of his play, was the romantic figure on the links for whom many had been waiting.

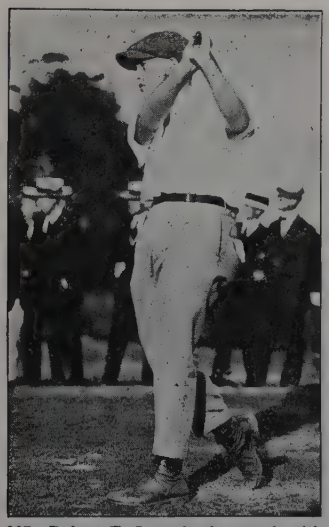


665 Francis Ouimet, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

AT BROOKLINE

OUIMET'S first and greatest triumph was in the National Open tournament on the Brookline course in 1913. Harry Vardon and Edward Ray, two of the finest professionals in Great Britain, qualified for competition. Vardon, having won the British Open five times, was expected to have an easy victory, but the experts were not acquainted with the bold and accurate play of the young golfer from Auburndale. Even Ouimet's close friends were surprised at the calmness with which he went around the course. When Vardon, Ray, and Ouimet were tied for low score, the gallery became excited, yet scarcely dared hope that the American would win the play-off against two such veterans. With stoical indifference to the nervous tension of the spectators Ouimet led his rivals around the course to turn in a card of 72, five better than Vardon's and six better than Ray's. As the click of his last shot sounded on the final green the gallery of three thousand hailed with shouts one of the most dramatic episodes in the history of American golf.

666 Ouimet winning the Open Championship at Brookline, 1913, from a photograph, courtesy of Charles Blair Macdonald



667 Robert T. Jones in the match with Robert Gardner at Merion, from a photograph by Central News Photo Service, New York

THE DÉBUT OF BOBBY JONES

Among the thousands who were thrilled by the spectacular victory of Francis Ouimet was an eleven-year-old boy in Atlanta, Georgia. For five years he had followed his seniors around the East Lake course of the Atlanta Athletic Club, watching the play of Stewart Maiden, the club professional. Without any formal tutoring he had learned the use of the various clubs and had mastered the important strokes of the game. At the age of thirteen Robert T. Jones, Jr., known to his friends as Bobby, was already a veteran in tournament competition. Having won the Georgia State Championship in 1916, he decided to enter the National Amateur matches at the Merion Cricket Club in Philadelphia. With youthful assurance he met the veterans of the links, finally failing to keep up with the long drives and faultless approach shots of Robert Gardner, then amateur champion.

TOURING THE COUNTRY

Disappointed, but not discouraged by his failure, Bobby Jones began preparations for future triumphs. He practiced incessantly. Every tournament was an opportunity to perfect his strokes and improve his match play. At the same time he was conquering a great mental hazard, an inclination to lose his temper, which threatened to wreck the smoothness of his play. After the entry of the United States into the World War Jones, who was then fifteen years old, offered his services to the Red Cross for exhibition play. With Perry Adair and Alexa Stirling, two young friends from Atlanta, and Elaine Rosenthal he toured the country, familiarizing himself with the best courses in every section and learning their peculiar conformation and construction.

668 Robert Jones, Alexa Stirling, Elaine Rosenthal, Perry Adair in a match for the benefit of the Red Cross at Montclair, New Jersey, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

WINNING THE AMERICAN OPEN

The half dozen years after his début at Merion were valuable to the young Atlanta golfer, but he felt a growing dissatisfaction with the progress he was making. Year after year he failed at match play in the amateur tournaments and at medal play in the National Open. Three times he had been runner-up, missing the prize by the narrowest of margins. In 1923 his perseverance was rewarded. On the Inwood course at Chicago he won his first national championship — the Open. From that time on he has never been without a national championship either in the amateur or the open competition. His greatest triumphs came in 1926, in which year he first won the British Open Championship.

669 The Gallery at the 1926 Open Championship, Scioto Country Club, Columbus, Ohio, from a photograph, courtesy of Charles Blair Macdonald

THE WALKER CUP

670 Chick Evans teeing off in the 1928 Walker Cup Matches, Wheaton, Ill., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

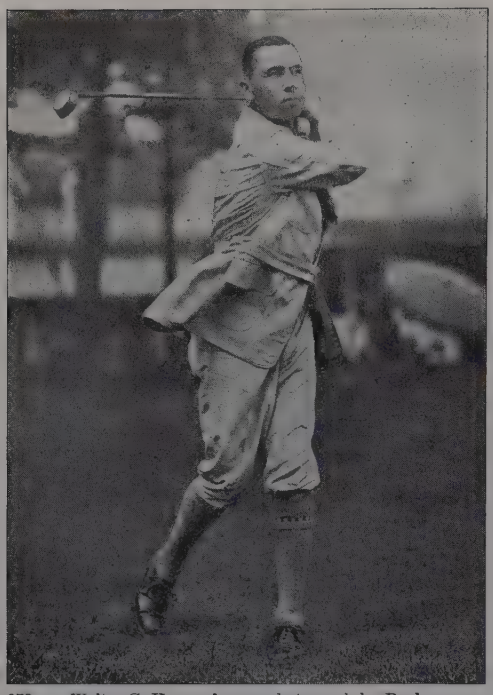
TIME was when it would have been presumptuous for an American amateur to consider himself qualified to meet the leading players of England, but that time has passed. Jesse Sweetser won the British Amateur title in 1926 and Bobby Jones held the Open Championship in the same year and defended it successfully in 1927. An even more convincing sign that American golf has equaled the British standard is the biennial competition for the international trophy, known as the Walker Cup. The matches were inaugurated in 1921, when a number of our amateurs, among them Jones, Evans, Ouimet and Guilford, went over to Hoylake to try for the British Amateur championship. A team competition was informally arranged which the Americans easily won. The following year George H. Walker, a former president of the United States Golf Association, presented a cup which has become the symbol of the international championship. On the links at St. Andrews and on the courses of this country our golfers have successfully defended the trophy, with Jones, Sweetser, Ouimet, Evans, Marston, Gardner, Gunn, and Guilford sharing the honors. Americans have clearly demonstrated their ability to meet the best British players in the game which they learned from the Scots.

A TRIUMVIRATE OF PROFESSIONALS

AMATEUR golf in the United States is deeply indebted to the professionals. Few in number, compared with the millions of amateurs now treading the links, their ranks have grown steadily with the multiplication of clubs and courses. In the early days they were generally Scots, who laid out the courses, interpreted the rules, exemplified the etiquette of the game, and instructed club members in its technique. Their number was gradually augmented by many native-born Americans who had mastered the game sufficiently well to become teachers. Out of the ranks of the teachers came the first professional champions — such men as Horace Rawlins, Willie Anderson, and Alex Smith. But in these later days the professional with championship aspirations finds a club where his teaching duties will be slight so that he can devote more time to tournament play. Brilliant exemplars of the present generation of professionals are James Barnes, Jock Hutchison, and Gene Sarazen. One can depend upon Barnes. His drives are always long, his mashie shots are amazingly accurate. On the green he sinks his putts with an even, sure stroke. Hutchison probably surpasses him in command of strokes, but the winner of the British Open in 1921 is inclined to be temperamental. Such nervous energy goes into his play that he often burns himself out before the course is finished. Quite the opposite is Sarazen. A careful student of the peculiarities of the course, he won the National Open on the Skokie Course at Chicago largely because he knew the topography of every green and fairway. His courage is equaled by his determination, and he has demonstrated on many occasions that no misfortune can dismay him.

671 Gene Sarazen, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

672 Alex Smith, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York



673 Walter C. Hagen, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

WALTER C. HAGEN

The premier position which Bobby Jones occupies among the amateurs belongs to Walter Hagen among professionals. He is a constant delight to the gallery which follows him over the course. Unperturbed by mistakes or ill luck, he plays his finest golf when he is in the greatest difficulty. Enormously optimistic about the outcome of every contest, he dares to try any shot and astonishes the spectators quite as much by the boldness of his strategy as by the brilliance of his performance. In the last fifteen years he has played before ever-increasing galleries on both sides of the Atlantic, twice winning the National Open both in this country and in Great Britain.

EARLY FEMININE GOLFERS

In the closing years of the nineteenth century the golf clubs along the Atlantic seaboard rather grudgingly extended the privilege of using their courses to the wives and daughters of their members. Certain afternoons were set aside for the benefit of the feminine players, but few of them took advantage of the opportunity. When the first national tournament for women was held only a baker's dozen were sufficiently interested to compete for the cup. On a misty morning in early autumn of 1895 they played around the Meadowbrook course on Long Island, the winner, Mrs. Charles S. Brown, turning in a card of 132 for the eighteen holes. Most of her competitors had scores ranging from 140 up. It was scarcely inspiring golf, but the participants were determined to improve their games by constant practice. Subsequent tournaments revealed the fruit of that determination. For three years after the first competition Beatrix Hoyt who had been coached by Willie Dunn, the Shinnecock Hills professional, displayed a natural aptitude which won her the title. She secured both distance and accuracy in her tee shots and with the brassy. Her drives would have satisfied even the most captious caddie from old St. Andrews for she had a low round swing with a beautiful follow through which was a lesson in correct form to all who watched her play.

674 Mrs. Charles S. Brown, from an engraving in *The National Magazine*, August 1896

675 Beatrix Hoyt, from an engraving in *Land and Water*, June 1899

LOWER SCORES

THE improvement in women's golf has been constant and rapid since the days of the initial tournament at Meadowbrook. The substitution in 1902 of the rubber-cored ball for the gutta-percha ball enabled feminine players to improve the distance in their drives. As they secured more time on the courses or formed clubs and built links of their own, the increased practice was revealed in lower scores. With the passing years the average age on the links declined, which meant that women were learning to play in their youth. Finally the slow but inevitable adoption of sensible apparel for the sport gave every participant an advantage over the excessively costumed players who swung vigorously but not too well at the little white ball in the early days.

676 Dorothy Campbell and Georgiana Bush Comparing Scores, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

DOROTHY CAMPBELL

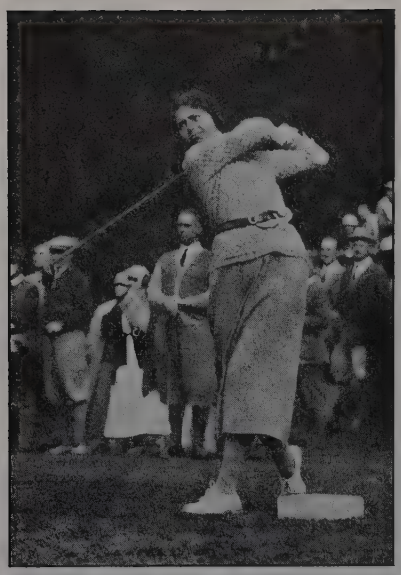
IN the first decade of the present century Genevieve Hecker, Pauline Mackay, and Margaret Curtis maintained the high standard of play set by Beatrix Hoyt, but no champion stimulated the women's game quite so much as Dorothy Campbell. She learned her game on the dunes and moors of North Berwick. Fresh from her victory in the British Women's Open tournament, she won the amateur title in this country in 1909. The following year she defended her title successfully at Chicago and in 1911 she won the British championship a second time. It is twenty years since Dorothy Campbell, now Mrs. Hurd, scored her initial tournament victory, yet she remains one of the foremost players among women golfers in the United States and Great Britain. On the putting green, where most women are weak, she displays an exceptional accuracy. Her short mashie approach is always sure and her judgment in the use of clubs is usually irreproachable. The calm assurance of her game is a characteristic which her competitors sorely need.

677 Dorothy Campbell, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE REIGN OF ALEXA STIRLING

THE year that Bobby Jones made his initial bid for glory on the Merion course in Philadelphia his friend and neighbor, Alexa Stirling, won the National Women's Amateur Championship. For five years she dominated the eastern courses. During the war her benefit matches throughout the country gave many women an opportunity to study her style of play. Her excellent drives and well-executed approach shots overcame those occasional lapses on the green which alone marred her game. In difficulty she never lost her nerve, and her courage made her invincible at match play. Though younger champions have appeared, Alexa Stirling, now Mrs. Fraser, still retains her place in the front rank.

678 Alexa Stirling, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York



679 Glenna Collett, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

GLENNA COLLETT

Among the numerous galleries which watched Alexa Stirling play in 1918 was a serious girl of fifteen, hair down her back, wearing a sweater topped off with a tam o'shanter. She was literally enveloped in the voluminous folds of a chequered skirt which reached nearly to the ground. Thus appareled Glenna Collett entered the Eastern Women's Tournament on the Apawamis course at Rye, New York, in 1919. Four years later she won her first important victories in the Eastern and National Championships. Since that time Miss Collett has shared the honors with Marian Hollins of Pebble Beach, California, Edith Cummings of Chicago, and Miriam Burns Horn of Kansas City. Like Joyce Wetthered in England she has demonstrated by her consistent play that women are slowly reaching a plane of equality with men on the links.

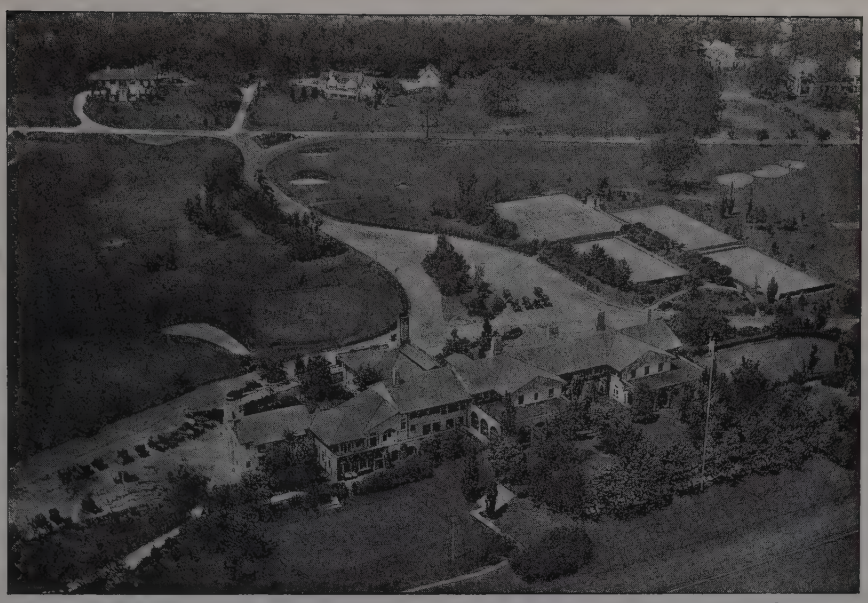
680 Marian Hollins, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE LURE OF THE LINKS

The championship matches are pleasant to watch in the company of an interesting and colorful gallery, but they are merely the frills and furbelows of golf. Its substance is the every-day play of the "duffer," who slices his ball into the rough and is forever in trouble with bunkers and hazards. Here is golf's chief glory, that it appeals to hundreds of thousands who have no thought of championship honors, and holds them at play "till they cannot see the flag, and the low moon throws shadows on the dew-wet grass." The secret of its spell lies in its many-sidedness. There is mental relaxation in concentrating on the drive, the approach, and the putt; it is stimulating to feel the joy of conquering oneself, for there is the true victory to be won on the golf course. Then, too, the sport offers variety in its ever-changing problems, satisfaction in its possibilities of scientific play, and fascination in the natural beauty of its setting. Professional or amateur, champion or novice, the player tramps along green fairways fringed by shady woods, into deep ravines where tall grass borders the tiny rill, over park-like lawns and sunny hills where mountain, sea, or cloud-flecked sky bounds the enchanting view.

681 Golf Links, Hotel Champlain, Bluff Point, N. Y., from a photograph, courtesy of the Delaware and Hudson Co., Albany

THE COUNTRY CLUB



682 Airplane view of the St. Louis Country Club golf course, from a photograph, courtesy of *The American Golfer*, New York

While not the initial cause of the development of the American country club, golf has been the most important factor in its growth. A protest against the summer hotel, the country club appeared in the last quarter of the nineteenth century as a significant social institution. In many communities it was founded upon interest in outdoor sport, such as riding to hounds, cross-country racing, or polo. After 1890 golf carried the institution into new regions and dotted the land with fairways and putting greens from Puget Sound to Palm Beach. Some of these courses are true links constructed on stretches of sandy soil that mark the seashore. Others are inland courses where snow-capped peaks or verdant hillsides form majestic background for the sport. Throughout the plains of the Mississippi Valley nature has been less generous in providing appropriate settings. There the ingenuity of the golf architect has been taxed to the utmost, but he has succeeded within limits in transforming the country club into something more glamorous than ever before. In every small town of the Middle West where the well-to-do class is sufficiently large to support a country club, golf has made it a vital factor in the community life. What once was merely a rural retreat in which to dance, play cards, and enjoy the pleasures of banquet hall and drawing room has now become the palace of the devotees of the links.

683 Midlothian Country Club, Chicago, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

684 Country Club, Euclid, Ill., from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

685 The Municipal Golf Course, Van Cortlandt Park, New York, from a photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

THE MUNICIPAL GOLF COURSE

From coast to coast the commissioners in charge of municipal parks have become convinced that golf is the one form of recreation, appealing to large numbers of people of all ages, which permits the retention of lovely park scenery. Tennis rivals it in the size of its following but the court, unlike the links, does not meet the æsthetic test. Thirty years ago Van Cortlandt Park, New York, and Franklin Park, Boston, were almost unique in their offering of public links for the use of all citizens. Today more than three hundred municipal courses are enabling the urban dweller to indulge in the well-nigh lost art of walking. The public links division of the National Golf Association maintains amateur tournaments for the Standish Cup and inter-city foursomes for the trophy presented by the late President Harding.

686 Municipal Instruction in Golf, Pasadena, California, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE NATIONAL GOLF LINKS OF AMERICA

Not far from Southhampton in the Shinnecock Hills of Long Island are the National Golf Links of America, a monument to the vision of Charles B. Macdonald, one of that little band of pioneers to whom Americans are indebted for their introduction to the game. In a region of great natural beauty has been constructed a course, nearly technically perfect, which reproduces the classic holes of the famous links of Great Britain. One who has played the Old World courses will recognize the Sahara Hole of Sandwich, the famous Road Hole of St. Andrews and the glorious Alps Hole of Prestwick. Opened for play in 1909, the links have grown steadily in favor with Americans and their European guests. On the occasion of his first visit, Bernard Darwin, not unacquainted with the finest golf architecture of Great Britain, was enraptured by the beauty of the Long Island setting. "It was my good fortune to arrive at the course at just the hour when the spirit of romance most palpably brooded over it. The sun was setting, and as we drove along the sandy road, winding between the huckleberry bushes that were to punish our errors on the morrow, the green strips of fairway dotted here and there with bunkers, the water of Bull's Head Bay, and the low woods that crown the further shore were one and all bathed in fading and fantastic light. Towards Peconic Bay the horizon was one broad strip of flame, while between the sky and the water a jet black line marked the hills on the further side of the bay."

687 The National Golf Links, Long Island, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

CHAPTER XII

THE GREAT OUT-OF-DOORS

NUMEROUS commentators, surveying a cross section of American civilization in this third decade of the twentieth century, have observed that the people of the United States do not know how to play. They dismiss our extensive preoccupation with organized and competitive sports as the feverish activity of nervous folk in a strenuous age, who know not where to turn for recreation. They find abroad in the land a spirit which seems to prevent us from enjoying ourselves in a hearty and spontaneous fashion. We are still under the compulsion to make our games and our amusements serve some useful purpose related to the serious activities of life. James Russell Lowell phrased the attitude admirably when he wrote in *Biglow Papers*:

> "Pleasure doos make us Yankees kind o' winch,
> Ez tho 'twas sumthin paid for by the inch;
> But yet we do contrive to worry thru,
> Ef Dooty tells us that the thing's to du;
> An' kerry a hollerday, ef we set out
> Ez steadily ez tho 'twas a redoubt."

These commentaries may be partially justified by the facts, but they are probably less pertinent today than at any previous time in our history. As a people we are being called away from a too exclusive interest in the contests of the diamond and the gridiron. The annual vacation has become an established institution with millions of us. It is not usually spent in enjoying highly competitive sports. Rather is it a time for acquaintance with the wonders and delights of the country in which we live, a time for seeking out the regions of natural beauty wherein is recreation in its truest sense.

That Americans have found their way into the great out-of-doors is evident from the records of the National Park Service. In 1928 more than two and one half million visitors sojourned for varying periods within the confines of the parks which the Federal Government has set aside for the benefit of the nation. This great domain consists of twenty-one units, with two in the making — the Great Smoky National Park in North Carolina and Tennessee, and the Shenandoah in Virginia. The parks, many of which are game preserves for elk and deer, caribou, antelope, moose and grizzlies, range in size from the diminutive Platt in southern Oklahoma and Sully's Hill in North Dakota, each slightly more than a square mile in area, to the immense Yellowstone tract almost three times as large as the state of Rhode Island. Together they constitute a domain the size of the kingdom of Belgium. Under Stephen T. Mather and his successor, Horace Albright, it has been administered with rare efficiency and intelligence. Their statesmanlike policy has turned the National Park Service from an experimental bureau into the honored guardian of one of the nation's priceless possessions. Without sacrificing the treasures consigned to their care, they have made it easy for millions to draw inspiration from the grandeur and beauty of nature's handiwork.

688 Highrock Spring, Saratoga, New York, from a lithograph in the Gottschalk Collection, New York

EARLY SUMMER RESORTS

During the generations after the Revolutionary War most Americans still earned their living in the open air. Seashore, forest, and field were for them the scenes of exhausting toil rather than places of recreation amid the delights of nature's beauty. But a small leisure class, living in the larger towns and enjoying an increasing wealth, sought the surf-flecked shore or the mountain lake to spend the summer season. In 1810 the turnpike from Brooklyn to Far Rockaway Beach was filled with the carriages of New York City's exclusive society, as they rolled back and forth between the ferry and the fashionable resort. In a few years it seemed to contemporary chroniclers that "by far the greatest portion of the genteel company from New York and elsewhere chose this watering place in preference to any other in the United States." There were, however, competitors for the favor of the rich. Along the New Jersey shore Long Branch offered an agreeable summer retreat to Philadelphians. Its new hotels, constructed after the War of 1812, afforded excellent accommodations for the guests, who amused themselves by riding over the neighboring countryside, taking long walks along the shore, or occasionally venturing to bathe in the ocean surf. Somewhat later Cape May and Atlantic City offered modest accommodations. During these same years the restorative properties of Saratoga Springs, New York, and White Sulphur Springs, Virginia, were exploited on an ever-expanding scale. At Saratoga, Gideon Putnam began in 1811 the construction of Congress Hall, the forerunner of a group of hotels, equipped with reading rooms, libraries, card rooms, billiard tables, and a score of other conveniences calculated to drive away the ennui of a fashionable watering place. So successful were these ventures that in 1825 an English visitor wrote: "Fashion has made this the Spa of the western hemisphere and from June to September all parts of the country pour forth their children on the pilgrimage of fashion or perhaps of health." Likewise, White Sulphur Springs became a mecca for wealthy Virginians and Southerners from other sections. The medicinal properties of its waters, widely advertised after 1815, furnished an initial attraction, soon supplemented by social diversions and outdoor games. While the ladies played whist, the gentlemen turned to billiards, nine pins on the green, or exercise in the small gymnasium. When President Van Buren visited White Sulphur in 1839, he found that deer hunting was a favorite sport. With a fine pack of hounds available, gentlemen were in the saddle every day during good weather. Others rode across country to enjoy the scenery, allured by the wooded vistas of the Alleghenies, as were the patrons of the Mountain House by the billowy foothills of the Catskills.

689 On the Beach at Cape May, New Jersey, from a lithograph in the Gottschalk Collection, New York

690 Early View of Atlantic City, New Jersey, from a photograph, courtesy of the Atlantic City Chamber of Commerce

AT NEWPORT

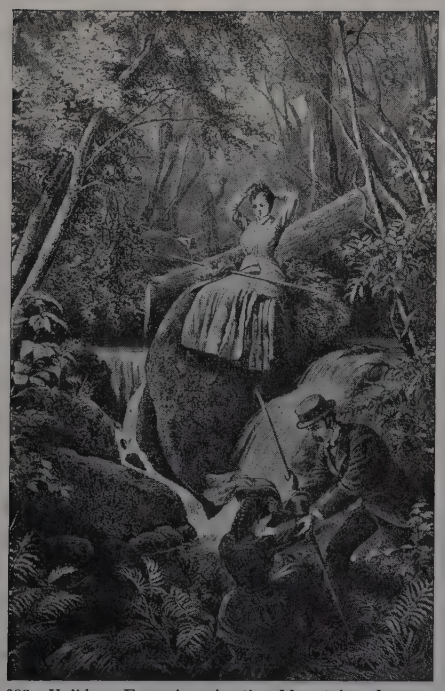
691 The Drive at Newport, R. I., from a sketch by G. C. Bush in *Harper's Weekly*, August 14, 1869

While the routine of factory and office was hurrying yet narrowing the lives of city folk, the railroads and steamship lines were offering them a means of escape from their urban environment. That escape meant a rediscovery of the out-of-doors. Some established elegant summer homes in regions where nature had been particularly lavish; others spent their leisure time at the seashore, or by mountain lake and inland stream. From the cities the annual exodus brought unnumbered thousands to the nation's most famous resorts. Saratoga, Long Branch, and Atlantic City felt the new impetus during the 'sixties and 'seventies. Newport, which before 1850 had been a synonym for repose, became the fashionable watering place in America, with an elegance that was as impressive as it was artificial. The little colony which for years had found relaxation in staid amusements — a little driving, a little bowling, a dip in the water — was overwhelmed by the new order of things. Pretentious villas were erected; the hotels were filled with guests. Music, dancing, and serenades were incessant accompaniments of the parade of fashion. The yacht races became gala events. Polo was introduced in the 'seventies, and a decade later the tennis tournament became all important for the crowd at the Casino.

ALONG THE SEASHORE

The quickening of society's outdoor activities was not confined to Newport. From Maine to Florida the accessible beaches became the centers of crowded resorts during the appropriate seasons. The village of Atlantic City, situated directly on the ocean and easily reached from New York and Philadelphia, attracted family groups less interested in fashionable society than in the benefits of the bracing sea air. The bathers, all heavily clothed, sought the sloping sands of the white beaches in ever-increasing numbers. Thousands followed President Grant to Long Branch, when he made it the nation's summer capital. Finding the crowds at the hotels too heterogeneous, many built their villas close to the center of the social whirl. When the season was over at the northern resorts, some enjoyed a second vacation in the South. Jacksonville and other Florida resorts welcomed each winter a host of pleasure seekers, whose leisure was not subject to the unexpected and compelling demands of business enterprise.

692 The Bathing Hour on the Beach at Atlantic City, New Jersey, from a sketch by Frank H. Schell in *Harper's Weekly*, August 30, 1890



693 Holiday Excursion in the Mountains, from a sketch by William Montagne Cary in *Harper's Weekly*, September 28, 1878

IN THE MOUNTAINS

Only a portion of those who fled the city during vacation time found their way to the shore. For many greater compensations awaited in the solitude of mountain wilds. Shrewd investors had exploited the choice spots in the Catskills, the Adirondacks, and the White Mountains, offering to their patrons the gorgeous panorama of nature and at the same time all the comforts of an exclusive hostelry. Thus Lake Winnepesaukee was representative of the resorts which appealed to the mass of not too venturous nature lovers. Situated sixty miles by rail from Boston, it lay at the foot of the range of mountains which from the color of their sides and summits had been named White Mountains. Its twenty-mile expanse of water, dotted by the green of hundreds of small islands, was so appealing that many a tourist, originally intending to penetrate further into the wooded highlands, stopped to enjoy its placid loveliness. Beyond its tortuous shore line, reached by a rocking stagecoach, were the mountain villages where the pleasure seeker had the choice of fashionable hotel or quiet, yet comfortable, farmhouse. Whichever he chose, the offering of the out-of-doors was the same — rambles along the woodland stream, expeditions up the slopes of the lofty peaks, fishing in the depths of some shady pool or ventures into the forest in search of partridge, pigeon, and quail.

LEARNING TO PLAY

Despite the conventional formality of life at many of the resorts in the 'seventies, Americans were learning slowly, and sometimes painfully, to play in the great out-of-doors. It was an accomplishment which did not come easily to the business man of the period. Immersed in what he considered the serious affair of life — making a comfortable living — he often took his vacation under protest, found that time hung heavy on his hands, was bored by the social functions so important for the women members of his family, and waited expectantly for the mail and the daily paper, which he greedily devoured. The extent of his relaxation from business concerns seemed to be the billiard room, the smoking lounge, and the whist table. Occasionally he participated in the waltz. Gradually, however, he became aware of the recreative possibilities of out-door sport. Following the lead of the younger generation he learned to swim, to row, to ride, and to follow the mountain trail. His contact with nature was seldom either extensive or intimate, but the first steps had been taken along the path which led to a greater appropriation and appreciation of the wilderness areas of the country.

694 From a woodcut, *How We Went up the Mountain*, by Lauderbach after a sketch by E. B. Bensell, in *Godey's Lady's Book*, November 1868

CONEY ISLAND

695 The Coney Island Concourse, from a drawing in *Harper's Weekly*, August 4, 1877

Coney Island is a symbol. Its bizarre mingling of natural beauty and human tawdriness is typical of the amusement places which minister to thousands who have few opportunities for outdoor recreation. Located at New York's back door, within reach of multitudes whose radius of travel was limited, Coney Island in the 'sixties of the last century rose to eminence among the less attractive resorts. Its beach was lined with an assortment of sprawling bathhouses, many of whose patrons had brought the island into ill repute. In the 'seventies, however, the New Coney emerged. The building of the Prospect Park and Coney Island Railroad, the organization of the Iron Steamboat Company, and the erection of dancing pavilions, shooting galleries, side shows, and gaming halls cast a glamour of cheap and gaudy splendor over the shifting sand dunes. The island became nationally famous. Larger and more respectable crowds came. They crowded the Concourse with their carriages. They found the bathing beach delightful. Most of them accepted the resort at its own valuation, seldom pausing to look beneath the dazzling brilliance of its fraudulent glory. In other cities its imitators were legion — all contributing to the popular misconception of recreation as a restless seeking for new and greater thrills.

696 Tarpon Fishing at Boca Grande, Florida, from a photograph, courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History, New York

THE WINTER RESORTS

At the opposite extreme of the social scale from the crowds which frequented Coney were the wealthy few who found relief from the rigors of winter in the salubrious climate of the South and West. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century the annual pilgrimage to winter resorts grew steadily. In Florida and the southern part of California, particularly, nature's generous offering attracted many anxious to find interesting playgrounds. The first generations of these pleasure-seeking pilgrims selected surroundings suitable for the sports popular in northern resorts. They preëmpted sunny beaches with white sand level as a floor; picturesque coves became headquarters for their cruising yacht squadrons; piney bridle paths tested the footing of their saddle horses; mountain trails challenged their best climbers; and offshore their anglers sailed to fight the gamey barracuda, sailfish, or tarpon. As the years passed some became interested in the natural charm of their playground domain and sought to save its choicest areas from immediate exploitation. Where their efforts were successful public parks have replaced the private ventures of an earlier day.

697 A Hunt Meet at Aiken, South Carolina, from a photograph by Edwin Levick, New York

698 Ice Yachting on the Hudson, from a sketch by M. J. Burns in *Harper's Weekly*, February 10, 1883

ICE YACHTING

THE resorts in sunny climes are not the sole influence keeping Americans out-of-doors during the winter. Skating, coasting, and sleighing have been supplemented by numerous other sports in the calendar of winter's amusements. Of them all none requires greater skill and daring than ice yachting. A popular pastime generations ago among the Dutch, it has developed rapidly in this country within the last century. The first American ice boats were crude adaptations of the sled principle with four clumsy runners resting upon the ice. Shortly after 1860 a new type emerged with a skeleton in the form of a large Grecian cross supported by two runners and a rudder. Soon the Hudson between Newburgh and Poughkeepsie was the scene of winter regattas, many of the sixty-foot yachts, with a spread of one thousand square feet of canvas, attaining a speed of more than a mile a minute. The large-winged racers of the earlier days have now been supplanted by shorter boats, carrying between three and four hundred feet of canvas, but the speed remains substantially the same. Today the climax of the season comes with the annual pennant race on the broad reaches of the North Shrewsbury River at Red Bank, New Jersey, where thousands enjoy the graceful but terrific flight of the slender boats across the ice.

699 Ice Boating on the Shrewsbury River, New Jersey, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

THE TOBOGGAN

THE *otobonark* and the *tobaakum*, once extensively used by the Indians of the Canadian provinces, are ancestors of the North American toboggan. Originally used to haul food and supplies, it was adopted by the French *voyageurs* in Canada as a convenient means of transportation over snow and ice. Formed of a long, thin board or boards curved upward at the forward end, it sometimes possessed low runners, though in the more common type the body rested on the ground. As its use as a carrier of goods declined, Canadians found it was serviceable for coasting on specially prepared ice slides. In the third quarter of the nineteenth century we borrowed from them both the instrument and the art of tobogganing.

700 The Toboggan used for Carrying Supplies, from a sketch, *Hunting on Snow-Shoes*, by J. Macdonald in *Harper's Weekly*, February 7, 1885

701 Toboggan Slide of the Essex Club, Orange Mountain, N. J., from a sketch in *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, January 23, 1886

TOBOGGANING BECOMES FASHIONABLE

Coasting down hill on sleds provided rollicking fun for American youth, long before their elders, somewhat self-consciously at first, tested out the sensation of tobogganing. One of the first "chutes" or "slides" south of Canada was constructed at Saratoga in 1885. In the metropolitan district surrounding New York, toboggan clubs were organized among the members of fashionable country clubs and funds were raised to build coasting facilities. The Essex County Toboggan Club, locating its activities in the foothills of the Orange Mountains in New Jersey, constructed a wooden trough four feet wide extending more than one-fifth of a mile into the valley below. Filled with packed snow, upon which water had been poured until the surface had become glazed ice, this chute was a race course that enabled toboggans to travel at a rate of speed not exceeded on the finest slides at Montreal. A succession of intensely cold winters caused the formation of many small clubs, but interest lagged when weather conditions made it difficult to maintain good coasting. Within recent years the delightful thrill of skimming down the smooth speedway has been available to the guests at Saratoga, Lake Placid, Poland Springs, and other northern winter resorts.

702 Tobogganning at Saratoga, N. Y., from a sketch by W. P. Snyder in *Harper's Weekly*, February 7, 1885

SKI RUNNING

Like the toboggan, the ski first appeared in America as an instrument of utility rather than of sport. Brought to our shores by those descendants of the Norsemen who settled Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota, it was commonly used by them for winter travel. The early records reveal an interesting figure, "Snowshoe" Thompson, native of Telemarken, Norway, who for twenty years after 1850 carried mail from northern California to Carson Valley, Idaho, skiing over mountain and valley in the course of his duty. As a sport ski running is comparatively young. In 1886 tournaments were held by the Norwegian settlers at Eau Claire, Wisconsin, and Red Wing, Minnesota, in imitation of a cross-country ski race which was run the previous winter by the Norwegian Ski Club of Minneapolis. Among the members of the club at Red Wing were Mikkel and Torjus Kermmestvedt, who traveled over the country in the late 'eighties giving exhibitions and introducing hundreds to the pleasure of catching new vistas of the outdoor world as one glided over the countryside on the surface of the hardened snow.

703 Ski Running, from a photograph by Brown Bros., New York

704 The World's Champion Ski Jumper, Nels Nelson, from a photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, New York

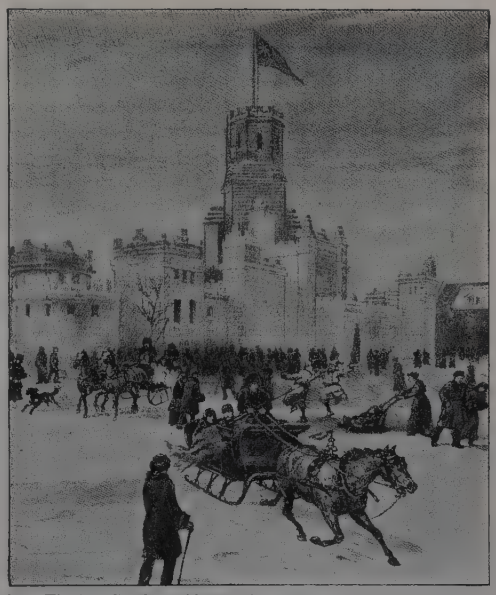
RIDERS OF THE WINGED SKI

THE pleasant exhilaration of ski running is mild sport for those who have experienced the incomparable sensations of ski jumping. It has all the appearance of "human aviation performed on two clumsy looking flat sticks," each of which is eight feet long and weighs six or seven pounds. The very site of the ski jump is startling to the spectator. It consists of an approach, a take-off, an alighting ground and an out-run. From the smooth approach, which may be either a hill with a drop of three or four hundred feet or else an artificial incline covered with snow, the jumper secures the momentum which carries him at high speed to a level platform, raised five or ten feet sheer above the ground, which is known as the take-off. It serves the rider of the ski as the spring board serves the diver, shooting him off into space. Far beyond the "jumping off place" is a short stretch of ground sloping away until it becomes almost a cliff for three hundred or more feet on the larger hills. Where the slope levels itself again is the landing place and the out-run for the jumper whose skill overcomes all mental and physical hazards. In its entirety this site forms almost eight hundred feet of continuous declivity, with a difference of at least three hundred feet in elevation between the top of the approach and the final landing place. To the uninitiated spectator it seems to be a veritable apparatus of death. To the skilled jumper it means careful balancing and developing of momentum on the approach, the spring of utter abandon on the brink of the take-off, the graceful riding of the wind for more than one hundred and fifty feet and the perfect merging into the slope of the hill at the landing place amid gasps of admiration from the crowd. American interest in ski jumping is distinctly a development of the present century. One of the earliest exhibition meets was held at Ishpeming, Michigan, in the early winter of 1892 with members of the ski club of Red Wing, Minnesota, participating. Clubs were formed the following year in Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota among the Scandinavian population and in 1905 a national organization established a championship competition. Within a few years there were more than thirty clubs with an enrollment of two thousand. Most of the skilled performers, whether amateur or professional, were of Scandinavian descent. In 1925 the world's record was set by Nels Nelson, an American ski jumper, with the prodigious leap of 240 feet. From New England to the Rockies along the snow belt colleges and preparatory schools as well as community clubs and exclusive resorts found that spectators and participants were enthusiastic over the sport.

705 United States National Champion, Anders Haugen, Minneapolis, Minn., from a photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, New York

706 Ski Jumping at Ishpeming, Mich., from an engraving after a sketch in *Harper's Weekly*, March 12, 1892

THE ICE PALACE



707 The Ice Castle at Montreal, from an engraving after a photograph in *Harper's Weekly*, February 9, 1884

AROUND the skating rink, the toboggan slide, and the ski jump we have organized the winter carnival, that seasonal frolic which bears witness of our discovery of the value of winter sports in our play. At Saranac Lake in the Adirondacks this pageantry of ice and snow was first presented in 1897. Visitors to Montreal carnivals had described the glories of the fancy-dress ball on skates, the decorated sleigh parade, and the illuminated palace of ice. With variations Saranac arranged its own winter festival. There were hockey matches, contests in fancy and speed skating, ski and snowshoe expeditions, tobogganing, and masquerade balls. The climax came with the storming of the Ice Palace at night, when the myriad colors of fireworks were reflected from its crystalline walls. Saranac's innovation was not immediately imitated, but it inspired other communities, favorably situated, to stimulate participation in winter sports. New England towns in the White Mountains formed coöperative enterprises; Minneapolis, St. Paul and Denver were famed for their carnivals; in California, Truckee became synonymous with skiing and tobogganing. For thousands of city dwellers, winter became an opportunity to play in a natural environment made lovely by its universal drapery of white.

708 Dartmouth Outing Club (Fred Harris, center, on skis), from a photograph, courtesy of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

DARTMOUTH'S WINTER CARNIVAL

"DARTMOUTH has turned the liability of a northern winter into an asset." More than any other college in the country it has persuaded the undergraduate to seek his recreation out-of-doors during the entire year. That the call of "the joyous winter" was heard on the Hanover campus resulted largely from the efforts of Fred B. Harris. Bringing his skis with him when he entered college, it was not long before he sought to arouse his indifferent classmates to the pleasures of ski running and jumping. On January 9, 1910, an appeal in *The Dartmouth* brought together fifty men, who formed the Outing Club with Harris as president. The following winter the first carnival was staged — cross-country ski runs, snowshoe races, and ski-jumping contests. Within a few years it had become the gala event of the college year. From the elaborate parade opening the festival until the last ski rider has brought his graceful flight to a halt with a magnificent turn, thrill follows thrill as the athletes display their prowess, and the crowd, exulting in the glories of the snow-clad countryside, roars its approval of well-nigh impossible feats on snowshoe, skate, and ski.

709 Ski Jumping at the Dartmouth Carnival, from a photograph, courtesy of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

710 John James Audubon, from a bust in the Hall of Fame, New York University, New York

LITERARY NATURALISTS

That phase of the out-of-doors movement represented by summer resort and winter carnival did not draw its inspiration from the alluring beauty of untouched nature. It used the grandeur of natural amphitheaters largely as a setting for social diversions and competitive sport. Prior to the last quarter of the nineteenth century the cult of those who "loved nature for its own sake" was neither numerous nor influential, but there were signs of an awakening interest in the wild and unexploited areas of our countryside. An increasing company of Americans came to understand that "almost frenzied passion for the beauties of natural scenery" which drove John J. Audubon, the artist-naturalist, through the swamps and forests east of the Mississippi to study birds in their native habitats. The elaborate and exact paintings which he published in his *Ornithological Biography* in 1838 formed a mine of information for later publicists, who stimulated popular interest in the wild life of the country. Likewise, the literary work of Henry David Thoreau served to exalt the orderly simplicity of a natural environment as distinguished from the confused complexity of urban surroundings. His expeditions into the wilderness regions of New England, his contact with the primitive during two years after 1845 which were spent at Walden, and his comprehensive commentaries on his observations of forest, field, and stream profoundly affected the generation at the close of the century. Perhaps few of his readers sensed completely the force of his indignant rejection of society's conventions and sanctions, but none missed the lyric passages in which the lure of the out-of-doors was presented with all the conviction of a moralist.

JOHN BURROUGHS, 1837–1925

John Burroughs was representative of those naturalists whose interests were not primarily scientific. Born on a farm in New York state, he early manifested two unusual traits — an acute awareness of the world of nature and an ability to express his observations in original literary form. As a young man he made the acquaintance of Audubon and Thoreau through their writings. He cherished a deep friendship for Walt Whitman, originally based upon a kindred feeling for the outdoor life. In his books and essays Burroughs presented the rural scenes and wild life with which he was familiar in such compelling prose that his readers experienced an intense longing to take to the open trail, to catch new vistas of mountain and meadow and to enjoy the full significance of surroundings which had once been meaningless. For sixty years he wrote for that large body of his countrymen who needed to be awakened to the stimulating experiences of life beyond the limits of the city's streets. Never meticulously scientific, he waged war against the pseudo-naturalists who were engaged in writing tales of maudlin sentimentality about the denizens of forest and stream. He believed that these "nature-fakers," as Theodore Roosevelt called them, were doing more harm than good. Burroughs wanted to send his readers forth, intelligently equipped to understand what they saw in their rambles. His life was long enough to give him the satisfaction of knowing that his books had turned the attention of men and women, boys and girls, to the great out-of-doors.

711 Roxbury Valley and Heights in the Catskill Mountains, New York, from John Burroughs' farm, from a photograph by Clifton Johnson, Hadley, Massachusetts

THE APPALACHIAN MOUNTAIN CLUB

712 Lakes of the Clouds Hut, built by the Appalachian Mountain Club, near Mt. Monroe, N. H., from a photograph by Harold I. Orne, Melrose Highlands, Mass.

John Burroughs once said to a friend, as they encountered several pedestrians with camping equipment swung across their shoulders, "Whenever I see young men walking through the country like that I sometimes flatter myself that maybe my books have had a share in sending them forth." While it is impossible to estimate the influence of the writings of Burroughs and others with similar interests, we may be sure that their revelations of nature's lavish offering stimulated many to blaze trails and establish camps in the wild country of America. As the railroad brought the city closer to primeval forest and unclimbed mountain, a larger number sought the simplicity of summer camps, more isolated than the fashionable resorts. In this movement the hiking and mountain-climbing clubs were of primary importance. In 1876 the Appalachian Mountain Club was formed in Boston to "explore the mountains of New England and the adjacent regions both for scientific and artistic purposes." In its activities of more than half a century it has marked out and maintained more than two hundred miles of trails, has constructed stone huts and log shelters in the White Mountains, and has acquired sixteen park-like reservations, held in trust for the benefit of the public in New Hampshire, Maine and Massachusetts. Its four thousand members enjoy numerous week-end excursions into the heart of New England's forest domain, as well as longer expeditions for camping in the summer and early autumn. The club has faithfully carried forward its varied interests. To some it has afforded a means of studying the birds and mammals of the Appalachians, to others it has been a medium through which to work for the preservation of the natural beauty of our eastern wilderness. For all it has meant an opportunity to come in closer contact with the primitive. Its program and its methods have been followed on a smaller scale by scores of similar organizations in every part of the nation. In 1929 it took steps to complete a trail from one end of the Appalachains to the other.

713 View in the Yosemite National Park, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE SIERRA CLUB

The activities represented by the Appalachian Mountain Club in the East were sponsored on the Pacific Coast by the Sierra Club. Organized in 1892, this group was far famed for its insistent efforts to conserve for future generations the glories of the Sierra mountains and forests. Its guiding spirit was John Muir, friend of Burroughs, who was "hopelessly and forever a mountaineer." Under his leadership the Club was instrumental in securing the transfer of the Yosemite Valley from state to national control, an act which prepared the way for the creation of Yosemite National Park. Thousands who have tramped the trails of the Sierras are indebted to Muir's loyal associates for awe-inspiring vistas once inaccessible to man. In addition to its routine work of supervising week-end and vacation outings, the Club has promoted the formation of hiking groups among residents of the larger cities, designed to meet the needs of an urban population which has little time for extended tours.

714 Hikers in the country near New York City, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

THE GROWTH OF OUTING CLUBS

In the first quarter of the present century trails were blazed and shelters established with amazing rapidity. The outing club appeared in every section of the nation, its functions varying from the encouragement of short walks in the immediate locality of club headquarters to the supervision of expeditions into the little frequented regions of distant mountains and forests. Its membership ranged from the novice to the expert mountain climber, from the scientific naturalist to the eager but untutored student of nature's lore. Merely to list the organizations would require pages. Their purposes, however, were almost identical. The members of all of them could have accepted the creed of the Adirondack Club. "I believe in the out of doors, the woods, streams and hills, the wild life that lives therein, I believe that man's care for them in a state of nature consistent with conservation is his best investment for the future."

THE SUMMER CAMPS

The same impulse which created the outing clubs has manifested itself in the development of summer camping. Fifty years ago "camping out" was a necessary inconvenience in sparsely settled regions, but it was seldom considered an attractive form of recreation. Today an organized exodus each summer seeks the hills and valleys far beyond the din and dirt of the city. More than twelve hundred privately-owned camps accommodate the two hundred thousand who make this annual pilgrimage. Their attractive sites form a veritable network from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In the Adirondack, Catskill and Pocono ranges, through the lake country of Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota, and in the fastnesses of the Rockies and Sierra Nevadas, the traveler finds himself within easy access of one of these compromises between civilized and primitive living conditions. Many of them are known as "cultural camps" for boys and girls, wherein an attempt is made to combine nature study and recreation. Though there may be a difference of opinion as to the educational value of the camping movement, few will deny that even in its present imperfect form, it constitutes one of the most attractive deliverances from the monotonous standardization of the city. Perhaps it can be saved from the danger of a similar standardization.

715 A summer camp, from a photograph in the possession of the publishers

BRINGING WILD LIFE TO THE CITY

716 Polar Bears at the National Zoölogical Gardens, Washington. © Wide World Photos, New York

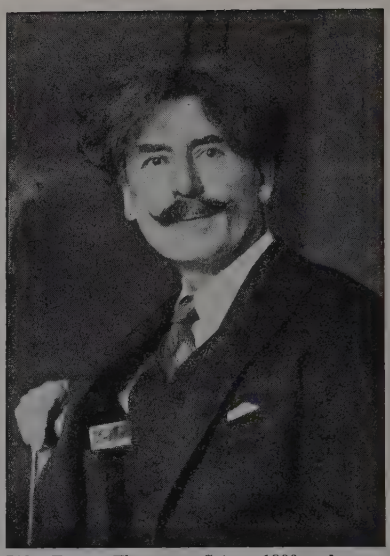
Not only did urban groups go forth in search of the wilderness, but they also brought the wild life of this and other continents to the city. During the latter half of the nineteenth century the "zoo," a somewhat imponderable factor in promoting "the study and dissemination of a knowledge of the nature and habits of the creatures of the animal kingdom," became an important element in the recreations of city folk. On holidays and Sundays the zoölogical parks were filled with crowds which rivaled in size the throngs on bank holiday in the grounds of the Zoölogical Society of London. Philadelphia, which in 1859 had announced plans for such a park, did not open its exhibits until 1873. The directors had spent the intervening years studying zoölogical gardens abroad, and soliciting a small number of animals for the new enterprise. Basing their arrangements upon the experience of the London Society, the Philadelphia promoters were primarily interested in the exotic and unusual, though the fox pens, bear pits, prairie-dog village, and deer enclosure proved that American species were not to be entirely neglected. Simultaneously a group of Cincinnati's leading philanthropists, inspired by the zoölogical societies in German cities, leased a tract of land from the city council and created the first important zoölogical park in the Middle West. Many communities in haphazard imitation procured collections of living animals which amused the public if they did not always contribute to the advancement of scientific knowledge. Golden Gate Park at San Francisco and Belle Isle at Detroit became famous for their exhibits. More significant from a zoölogical standpoint was the action of Congress in 1889, creating the National Zoölogical Park at Washington, D. C., to be controlled by the Smithsonian Institution. An ideal site of two hundred and sixty-five acres of undulating and wooded land, traversed by the rocky gorge of Rock Creek, was designated for the exhibits. On its borders stretched additional acres in which innumerable wild creatures lived in a state of native freedom. With admirable prevision the framers of the law charged its administrators to maintain the park for the "preservation of American species, for the advancement of science and the instruction and recreation of the people." These objectives have also figured largely in the work of the greatest zoölogical park in the country, that supervised since 1899 by the directors of the Zoölogical Society of New York. Without sacrificing any important scientific investigations, the officials have given valuable assistance to the city of New York in solving the social problem created by the crowd's incessant search for recreation.

717 American Bison at the Central Park Zoo, New York. © Wide World Photos

718 Daniel Carter Beard, 1850—, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

FORERUNNERS OF THE BOY SCOUTS

A GENERATION conscious of the benefits of work and play in the open began to train its youth to appreciate the out-of-doors. Since 1910 the Boy Scouts of America has been one of the most effective means for such training. As an organized movement it drew its inspiration from several sources. During the siege of Mafeking in the Boer War (1899–1900) Lord Edward Cecil, who was serving under Sir Robert Baden-Powell, organized the boys of the village into a scout troop and drilled them to perform duties which would release grown men for military service. So impressed was Sir Robert that upon his return to England he lectured widely on the desirability of systematic guidance along the lines of woodcraft and scouting for the adolescent boy. He soon learned that two Americans had already experimented with much the same idea. Daniel Carter Beard, having discovered that the average city boy was woefully ignorant of nature and amazingly inept even in the rudiments of various handicrafts, had formed the Sons of Daniel Boone, later known as the Boy Pioneers of America. At almost the same time Ernest Thompson Seton was pondering how he could combat "the degenerating influence of the city upon boyhood." Out of his deliberations came an organization stressing the importance of woodcraft and the participation of boys in games based upon forest lore. Under the name Woodcraft Indians the movement attracted considerable attention during the early years of the present century. From the work of both Beard and Seton, Sir Robert Baden-Powell borrowed features which he skillfully adapted to the needs of British youth. The result was the formation of the Boy Scouts in England in 1908. Two years later the movement, which had been instantly popular, was brought to this country as the Boy Scouts of America. Building upon the work that had already been done, the national council soon had enrolled more than one hundred and forty-five thousand boys as scouts. Scout masters served often without compensation to further a cause which seemed to them of the utmost importance. For five years Mr. Seton acted as Chief Scout, giving material aid in the preparation of the first manual which set the form for future codes. Meanwhile, the international character of the movement had been emphasized by the formation of national councils in every country of western Europe and in some parts of South America.



719 Ernest Thompson Seton, 1860—, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

720 Boy Scouts Building Shelters, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

721 Boy Scouts starting a two-day hike, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

722 The Boy Scout, from a statue by R. Tait McKenzie, courtesy of the sculptor

THE BOY SCOUT IDEA

"The Boy Scout idea is a philosophy rather than an organization." Taking the boy at that time of life when he is beset by the bewildering experiences of adolescence, it seeks to guide him in the investment of his leisure time, persuading him to spend his superabundant energy in wholesome outdoor games and in other interests of practical and cultural value. Its diversified activities are merely means to an end. The objective is to mold the impressionable years of youth in such fashion that the man will be prepared to meet life's emergencies as fully as was the boy to meet the test of a first-class scout. The "blue sky background" of scouting has established it as a vital factor in the development of American sport. Its program stresses that knowledge which can best be obtained by a life in the open. The scoutmaster, who is genuinely concerned that his troop shall fulfill the spirit as well as the letter of the law, leads the cross-country hike, the mountain climb, the refreshing swim and trains his boys to be comfortable and contented under the stars in a rustic shelter or an improvised tent. His woodcraft is no routine performance, but springs from a love of all creatures of the forest and is based upon acquaintance with their ways. Under such a guide scouting, especially during the camping expeditions, becomes a great outdoor game which constantly opens up to the growing boy the essentials of life itself.

723 The Boy Scout Trail to Citizenship, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

724 Around the Camp Fire, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

THE GROWTH OF SCOUTING

Since 1910 more than three million boys have traveled the trail from tenderfoot to first-class scout. Most of them have come from towns and cities, where the need for wisely directed recreation with a purpose was most acute. The country boy has not, however, been neglected. For him the farm patrol is designed to plan activities similar to those of the city troop, that he may within the limits of his particular location share in the handicraft work, the long hikes and the camping vacations which have meant so much to the boys from the city's streets. In 1928 the national council of the Boy Scouts of America reported more than eight hundred thousand members between the ages of twelve and seventeen, yet that represented only one in eight of the American boys eligible for membership. Too often this army of non-members included groups unfamiliar with nature's ways and sorely in need of the trail to physical strength, mental alertness and moral straightness which scouting offers to its devotees.

THE CAMP FIRE GIRLS

Parallel with the development of the Boy Scout idea has been the growth of similar organizations enabling girls to invest their leisure time in purposeful activities. Through the counsel and conference of Miss Lena Beard, Mrs. Charles H. Farnsworth, Mrs. Charlotte Gulick, and Mrs. Ernest Thompson Seton plans were made in 1911 for the formation of the Camp Fire Girls. In the work of launching the project Mrs. Farnsworth was indefatigable; from William Chauncey Langdon came suggestions of the name and the ranks of membership; the Gulicks contributed their personal experience with girls' camps; and the Setons preserved in the new group the romantic ceremonial which had been a part of the Woodcraft Indians. In her garb of fringed dress, special moccasins and colored beads the Camp Fire Girl personifies the out-of-door spirit which pervades the organization. Her pathway through the ranks of Wood Gatherer, Fire Maker, and Torch Bearer teaches her not merely the beauty of the common tasks of the home, but also the adventure of coöperative effort in work and play and the high romance to be found in studying nature's handiwork.

725 Camp Fire Girl in Costume, from a photograph, courtesy of the Camp Fire Girls, New York

THE GIRL SCOUTS

726 A Typical Girl Scouts Camp, from a photograph by Jessie T. Beals, New York

The Girl Scouts were founded in 1912 in Savannah, Georgia, by Juliette Low, who was well acquainted with the scouting movement both in Great Britain and the United States. Her nucleus of eight girls grew in fifteen years into an association of 167,925 members. In 1927 more than thirty-three thousand girls spent from one to nine weeks in camps located from Maine to California. High on the list of their activities were nature lore, tramping and trailing, swimming, canoeing, boating, archery, as well as a variety of household arts. "The Girl Scout Trail as a symbol is full of color and significance. It calls forth pictures of pioneer grandmothers, with their staunch hearts, high purpose and spirit of adventure. It suggests the fundamentals of life, the ability to survive through one's own endeavor, to clothe, feed and keep oneself warm. It recalls the woodlore and craftsmanship of the pioneer." — *The Girl Scout Trail*, 1927.

727 Boy Scout Traveling Camp, from a photograph, courtesy of the Boy Scouts of America, New York

THE TRAVELING CAMP

In addition to its established camps, which serve more than a half million boys each year, the executive board of the Boy Scouts of America has adopted a plan for "traveling camps." Touring the country in motor buses, reminiscent of the old-time circus caravan with its baggage wagons and kitchen equipment, the Scout camp enables seventy or eighty boys in each group to combine the advantages of life in the open with the adventure implicit in several thousand miles of travel. It serves to develop the boy's resourcefulness in an ever-changing environment as well as to acquaint him with distant areas of the nation in which he lives. If it continues to be an important factor in scouting, it should tend to break down provincialism and encourage an understanding of those common traits which cement the nation.

THE TOURIST CAMP

The Boy Scouts represent only a fraction of the country's peripatetic campers. With the development of the automobile and the extension of good roads into every corner of the nation increasing thousands spend their vacations motoring over the countryside. Relying upon their own camping equipment rather than upon the accommodations of wayside inns, they have become modern pioneers in exploring those regions where man has least changed the face of nature. In the automobile they have a machine much better adapted than the railroad to the task of carrying them back to the primitive. Or, if they prefer to ramble among civilization's show places, they have a conveyance equally useful. A tourist camp, with its scores of families from every quarter of the nation preparing their camping equipment for an overnight stop, is but one manifestation of the significant social revolution which the automobile has wrought in American life.

728 An Auto Camping Scene, Miami, Fla., from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

729 Tower Falls of the Yellowstone River, Yellowstone National Park, Wyo., from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

YELLOWSTONE — FIRST OF THE NATIONAL PARKS

For the present and future generations our system of national parks has preserved the most impressive examples of nature's handiwork. In 1869 a hunting party from Helena, Montana Territory, came quite by accident upon that region of hot springs and geysers now known as Yellowstone Park. It found confirmation of the earlier reports of John Colter and James Bridger concerning the wonders of the district. After an official exploration, Dr. F. V. Hayden of the United States Geological Survey prepared the bill which in 1872 inaugurated the policy of protecting our natural heritage against the inroads of man. Thirty years earlier the Government had assumed control of the medicinal springs at Hot Springs, Arkansas, but Yellowstone Park was first in the development which culminated in 1917 in the creation of the National Park Service.

A SCENIC WONDERLAND

With the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1882 the glories of Yellowstone became accessible to a larger multitude. They came year after year to enjoy the scenic grandeur of its canyons, geysers, hot springs and mountain lakes, or to follow trails through an untouched wilderness where wild animal and bird life had found a safe retreat against the advance of man. The stream of tourists has grown with each passing decade until the motor car, supplementing the railroad, has made it possible for millions of our people to sense the majesty of the lofty Tetons, the rushing power of the great falls, and the eternal mystery of Old Faithful.

730 Geysers in Yellowstone National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

THE PARK-TO-PARK HIGHWAY

From Yellowstone the famous park-to-park highway enables the motorist to swing around a circumference of more than five thousand miles, following improved roads which cross eleven states and link a dozen of the nation's parks into one stupendous unit. The rugged crags and glacier-hewn valleys of Rocky Mountain Park, just south of the Wyoming border, in Colorado, give way gradually to the high tablelands cut by countless multicolored canyons of the Southwest. In the midst of this great outdoor museum, rich in scenic and historic interest, lies Mesa Verde Park with its ancient cliff dwellings, no longer human habitations but enormous treasure houses of information for students of the prehistoric races which once roamed the precipitous trails.

731 Mesa Verde Park, Colo., from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

732 The Grand Canyon of the Colorado, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

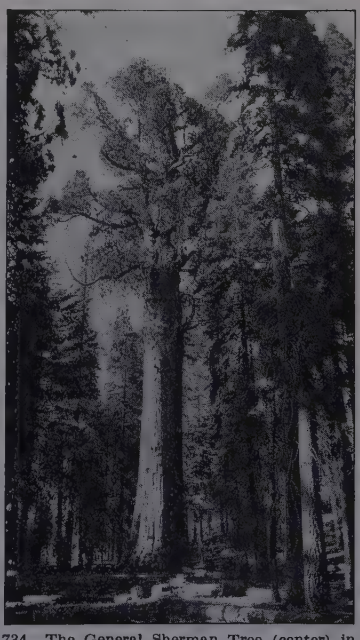
THE GRAND CANYON

In the northwest corner of Arizona elemental forces have created a natural panorama, awesome in its immensity, bewildering in its weird coloration. The Grand Canyon of the Colorado might have been the work of a titanic sculptor, assisted by a corps of giant painters, each choosing pigments and designs to suit his own fancy. The result is overwhelming. While it may not be nature's premier spectacle, its spell is indescribable, entrancing its beholders by the ever-changing appearance of its formations and colorings.

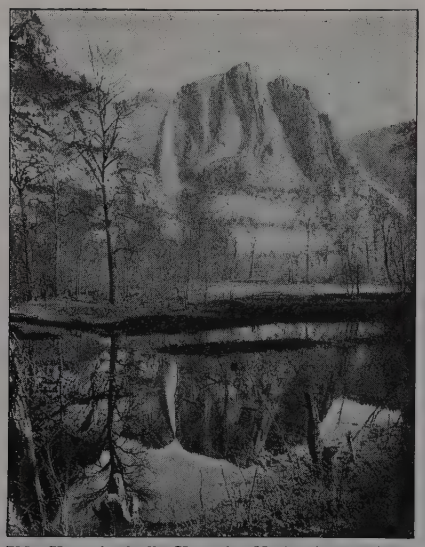
733 Scene along the Redwood Highway in northern California, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

AMONG THE BIG TREES

From the Grand Canyon the park-to-park highway enters California at the southern end of the great valley which stretches northward between the Coast Range and the lofty Sierras. Northwest of Bakersfield the summit of Mt. Whitney rises like a snow-crowned beacon marking the way to Sequoia National Park. In this reservation and the nearby General Grant National Park are forests of the world's oldest and mightiest trees. More impressive than the monoliths, which bear witness to the power of wind and water, are these living symbols of ages past. Monarch of them all is the General Sherman tree in Sequoia National Park with its giant arms stretching out more than two hundred and sixty feet above its noble trunk.



734 The General Sherman Tree (center) in Sequoia National Park, California, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

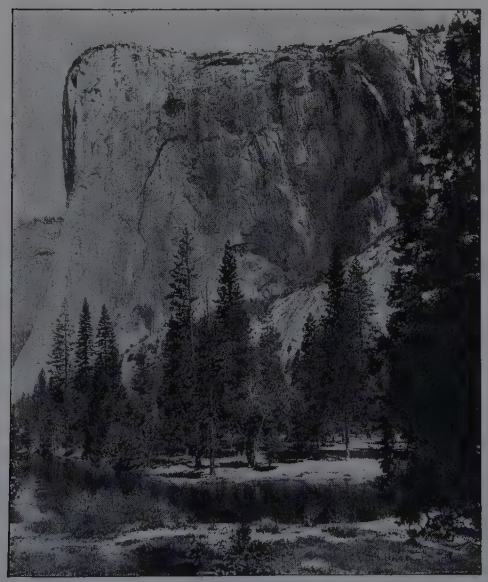


735 Yosemite Falls, Yosemite National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

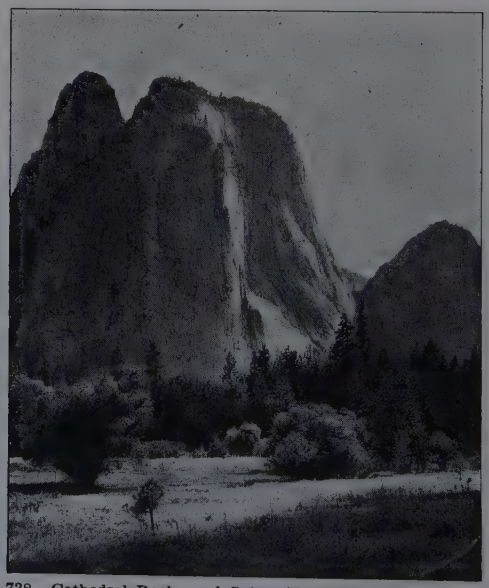
YOSEMITE

Yosemite was covered with a mantle of snow when the first white men beheld its forests and cliffs. In the winter of 1850–51 the Mariposa battalion, commissioned to keep in subjection the warlike Indian tribe from which the valley received its name, pushed along the course of the Merced River toward its source. Intent though they were upon their military mission, they sensed the majesty of the region into which they had penetrated. It was filled in winter, as well as summer, with an indescribable beauty. "No temple made with hands," wrote John Muir, "can compare with Yosemite. Every rock in its walls seems to glow with life. Some lean back in majestic repose; others, absolutely sheer or nearly so for thousands of feet, advance beyond their companions in thoughtful attitudes. . . . Gazing overwhelmed with the multitude of grand objects about us, perhaps the first to fix our attention will be the Bridal Veil, a beautiful waterfall on our right. Its brow where it leaps free from the cliff is about nine hundred feet above us. . . . On the other side of the Valley, almost immediately opposite the Bridal Veil, there is another fine fall. It is called the Ribbon Fall or Virgin's Tears. Just beyond this glorious flood the El Capitan Rock is seen through the pine groves, standing forward beyond the general line of the wall in most imposing grandeur, a type of permanence. . . . Across the Valley from here are the picturesque Cathedral Rocks nearly twenty-seven hundred feet high, making a noble display of fine yet massive sculpture. Next to them on the south side towers the Sentinel Rock, a telling monument of the glacial period . . . the thunder of the Yosemite Fall is heard and when we arrive in front of the Sentinel Rock, it is revealed in all its glory from base to summit half a mile in height and seeming to spring out into the Valley sunshine direct from the sky." — John Muir, *The Yosemite*, New York, 1912.

736 View across the Sierras from Yosemite National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York



737 El Capitan Rock, Yosemite National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York



738 Cathedral Rocks and Spires, Yosemite National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

739 Scott Park, showing Crater Lake, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

740 Mount Rainier, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

CRATER LAKE

NORTHWARD from Yosemite the tourist follows the Sacramento Valley through the great Redwood Empire, ever advancing toward the slopes of that northern sentinel, Mt. Shasta. The lakes and streams which skirt its base lead finally into Oregon, where the Cascade Range holds an unusual gem surrounded by a cluster of picturesque peaks. Crater Lake lies in the crater of an extinct volcano more than a thousand feet above the sea. Upon its surface floats a cloud-wrapped island like some ghostly phantom ship becalmed. "Fancy a sea of sapphire," wrote Joaquin Miller, "set around by a compact circle of the great grizzly rock of Yosemite. It is great, great; but it takes you days to see how great."

MOUNT RAINIER

THAT delightful vagabond, John Muir, once wrote: "Of all the fire-mountains which, like beacons, formerly b'azed along the Pacific Coast Mount Rainier is the noblest." Its volcanic activity is gone, but its charm has been enhanced. More than fifty square miles of glaciers silver its sides, disappearing in the colorful valleys whose forests crowd close to the line of glacial ice. For some Rainier is alluring as a scenic spectacle; for others it is a challenge to scale its precipitous slopes in the hope of reaching its lofty summit.

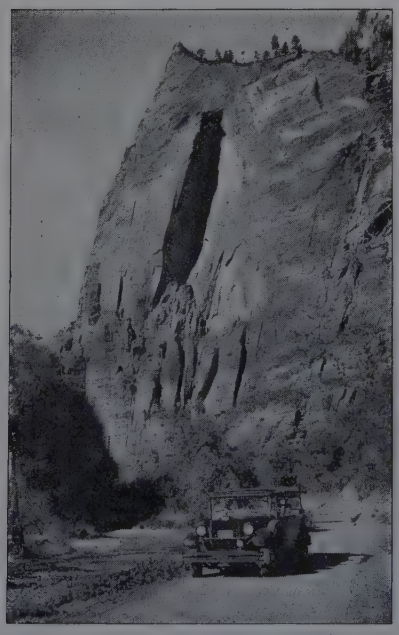
741 Glacier National Park, Montana, from a photograph by Hileman, Kalispell, Mont.

GLACIER NATIONAL PARK

Close to the Canadian border, on the crest of the great continental divide, lies Glacier National Park. From this "Dome of the Continent" one may view the mountain streams which find their way ultimately into the waters of the Atlantic, as well as the rushing torrents which flow toward the vast expanse of the Pacific. The surrounding area is rich in scenic contrasts; the somberness of granite peaks relieved by the enduring green of the conifers, massive pinnacles of snow and ice reflecting in shimmering light the rays of the sun, alluring valleys through which course glacier-fed streams to hurl their waters over high cliffs and boil upon the rocks below. Each winding of the trail discloses canyon, lake, or waterfall more amazing than the last.

ZION THE MAGNIFICENT

Somewhat apart from the main-traveled highways in the southwestern section of Utah is Zion National Park, a "Yosemite done in oils." The pigments of its fantastic spires and minarets are dazzlingly brilliant. Across miles of desert one can see its massive Vermillion Cliff and the glistening surface of its Great White Throne. The magnificent gorge of Zion, greatest of the canyons, has a sheer declivity of three thousand feet, its walls decorated by a master artist whose palette contained colors unknown to the human painter of landscapes.



742 Sandstone Cliffs in Zion National Park, Utah, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway

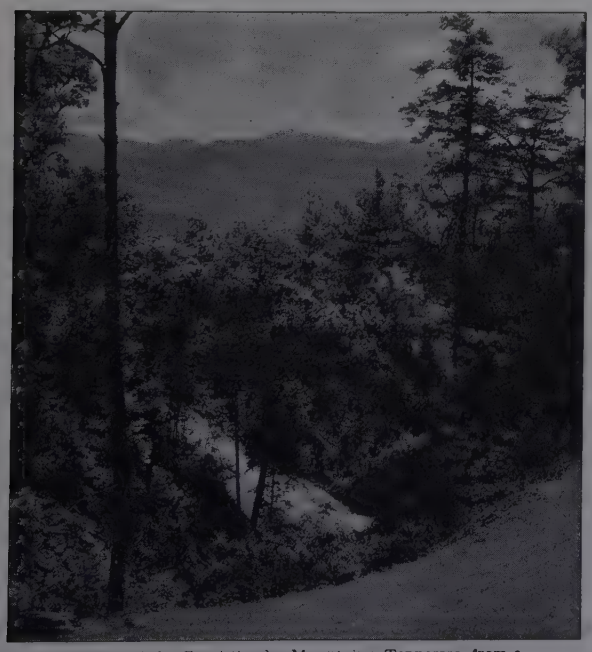
743 Temple of Sinawava, Zion National Park, from a photograph by Ewing Galloway, New York

744 Shenandoah National Park, Virginia, from a photograph by Harry Staley, Harrisonburg, Va.

745 South River Falls in Shenandoah National Park, Virginia, from a photograph by Harry Staley, Harrisonburg, Va.

THE SHENANDOAH NATIONAL PARK

RECENTLY the National Government has turned its attention to the preservation of wild country in the states east of the Mississippi. Since 1920 four national parks have been created by act of Congress: Lafayette on the coast of Maine; Mammoth Cave in Kentucky; Shenandoah in Virginia; and Great Smoky in North Carolina and Tennessee. These reservations supplement the admirable chain of parks long supported by state governments and philanthropic societies. Shenandoah in the Blue Ridge Mountains of Virginia abounds in picturesque gorges and cascading streams everywhere surrounded by a luxuriant forest which retains much of its primeval character.



746 A View of the Great Smoky Mountains, Tennessee, from a photograph by James E. Thompson, Knoxville, Tenn.

IN THE GREAT SMOKIES

PARALLEL to the Blue Ridge and extending from northwestern North Carolina into Tennessee are the Great Smoky Mountains. Wildest of all the highlands east of the Rockies, the faces of its splendid peaks still blossom with a virgin beauty. From time to time adventurous geologists and botanists — Bartram, Michaux, Gray, Mitchell, and Guyot — have explored its treasures, but man generally has made slight impression upon the forest mantle which covers its ridges and slopes. The blue haze of Indian summer which hovers eternally over the region seems to have barred out the rest of the world. Beneath this misty veil are mountain tops rolling toward the distant horizon. Their valleys are teeming with floral life — fiery azaleas, purple and rose-pink shrubs, and the waxy-white blossoms of the great rhododendron. In their upper reaches these merge into acres of ferns and black moss beneath spruce and feathery balsam. In the Great Smokies one finds the American forest at its best.

747 Mount Wilson, Montana, from a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

THE OUT-OF-DOOR MOVEMENT

In recent years more than two million Americans have annually been finding inspiration and recreation in the national parks and forests of the country. Most of them have sought an antidote for the gregarious regimentation of their workaday life. It is an antidote which industrialization made inevitable. In a sense it provides a substitute for that spontaneous individualism so characteristic of earlier generations when every man, impeded by a minimum of social restraint, made his own way against the wilderness. Contact with the grandeur and mystery of nature has in every age and every clime been a corrective of a too ready reliance upon the crowd and a too willing worship of the value of things. The out-of-door movement means more than mere physical exercise in the open. It glorifies also the benefits of that high idealism which may be generated on playground and playing field. It understands that vistas of mountain, sea and sky may be translated into terms of that spiritual vision without which the people perish. It was with this understanding that President Coolidge said: "I want to see all Americans have a reasonable amount of leisure. Then I want to see them educated to use such leisure for their own enjoyment and betterment, and the strengthening of the quality of their citizenship. We can go a long way in that direction by getting them out of doors and really interested in nature. We can make still further progress by engaging them in games and sports. Our country is a land of cultured men and women. It is a land of agriculture, of industries, of schools, and of places of religious worship. It is a land of varied climes and scenery, of mountain and plain, of lake and river. We must make it a land of vision, a land of work, of sincere striving for the good, but we must add to all these, in order to round out the full stature of the people, an ample effort to make it a land of wholesome enjoyment and perennial gladness." — Address at National Conference on Outdoor Recreation, May 1924.

NOTES ON THE PICTURES

4. The Bonner map, Vol. X, 600, shows the Common in 1722 before the Mall had been cut through or the work house built.
8. For W. L. Sheppard see Vol. III, Notes on the Pictures, 104. Also see Vols. IV and IX.
9. For Felix O. C. Darley, the best-known American illustrator of his day, see Vol. XII, pp. 244, 285–287, 308. Also see Vols. II, III, IV, VI, VII, VIII, X, and XI.
14. Note the resemblance of the "kolf" clubs to the modern field-hockey sticks.
16. The land selected by Governor Nicolls for the Salisbury course was sixteen miles long and four miles wide and comprised ground on which Garden City, Mineola, part of Hempstead, Westbury and Hicksville, now stand. Nicolls offered a plate to be raced for annually as an inducement to improve the provincial Dutch or Flemish breed of horses.
21. From left to right the lithograph shows Generals Wayne, Lafayette, Washington, Lagrange and Pulaski.
23. The original painting was made by D. Murrier, "painter to H. R. H. the Duke of Cumberland."
24. This is the first notice of a Maryland horse race to appear in a Maryland newspaper.
27. The artist was a son of Gerrit Duyckinck (see Vol. XII, p. 7), and was admitted as a freeman of New York in 1731, at which time he was described as "limner." The subject of his portrait was the son of Étienne De Lancey, a French protestant refugee and founder of the New York family. James De Lancey was a jurist, became a lieutenant-governor of New York, and for many years was the most influential man in the politics of the colony. His son, also named James (see p. 26), was a loyalist, and left permanently for England in 1775, his large estates in New York being confiscated at the end of the Revolution.
29. Currier and Ives prints are prized highly by present-day collectors. Their lithographs depict many phases of American life in the middle of the last century. See Vol. XII, p. 310; see also Vol. VIII, Notes on the Pictures, 659.
35. I. N. Phelps Stokes, *The Iconography of Manhattan Island*, covers pictorially the history of New York City from its beginning to the twentieth century. It contains the most complete collection of maps and views of New York that has been published.
39. See 29.
63. Frederick Remington, illustrator and sculptor, is notable for his reproductions of Army and Indian life in the Far West. See Vol. XII, p. 299. Also see Vols. I, II, III, IV, and VI.
68. For Thure de Thulstrup, see Vol. I, Notes on the Pictures, 643.
103. See 29.
106. From left to right are Maud S., driven by W. H. Vanderbilt; Hopeful, world's champion harness horse, driven by A. W. Richmond; the team of Edward and Lysander, driven by Robert Bonner; and St. Julian, driven by Orrin Hicock.
112. *Cleopatra's Barge* was sold to the Hawaiian government. See Vol. IV, 54.
114. Elliott, a pupil of Trumbull, first attracted attention by illustrations for works of Irving and Paulding. He is said to have painted more than seven hundred likenesses of famous men, including Fitz-Greene Halleck, Fenimore Cooper, and Matthew Vassar. His portraits of Governors Seymour and Hunt are in the New York City Hall.
119. The artist specialized in marine painting and acquired a reputation as a draughtsman of boats. His works show all types of English and American water craft in use during the last century.
124. See 29.
153. See 119.
163. See 29. The race was for four thousand dollars, and the championship of America.
190. See 29.
200. Theodore R. Davis was a well-known illustrator who made many of his drawings "on the spot."
202, 203, 207. See 29.
208. This illustration shows the illegal and unsportsmanlike method of shooting ducks used by professional pot-hunters. A gun too heavy and powerful to be shot from the shoulder is mounted in the bow of the boat, and is almost as effective as a small cannon. It is said that when they were bunched together as many as eighty fowls have been killed by a single discharge from such a shotgun.
210. For Arthur B. Frost, see Vol. XII, p. 298; see also Vols. III, IX, and XI.
212, 213. See 29.
215. For Alfred R. Waud, see Vol. IX, Notes on the Pictures, 80.
220. For H. A. Ogden, see Vol. I, Notes on the Pictures, 173; Also see Vols. VI, VII, VIII, and X.

225. See 200.
226. In the background is the smoke and reflection of an approaching prairie fire.
229. See 63.
231. See 210.
298, 328. See 68.
332, 378. See 220.
405. Robert Tait McKenzie, born in Canada in 1867, is a doctor, and has been director of physical education at the University of Pennsylvania since 1904. While his sculpture has been largely of athletic subjects, he has also executed war memorials and heroic statues of the youthful Franklin and Rev. George Whitefield. His work has been exhibited in the Paris Salon and in the Royal Academy in London.
408. See 29.
417. See 68.
444, 455. See 405.
475. Dr. Edward Hitchcock is the last figure in the first row on the left.
523, 524. See 29.
530. After being knocked through the ropes, Dempsey returned to the ring and knocked out Firpo in the second round.
531. This was the second of two fights between Dempsey and Tunney, both of which the latter won on points. The photograph shows Tunney sinking to the floor just after receiving the blow which almost knocked him out, but from which he recovered in time to win with comparative ease.
537. This drawing was made by Winslow Homer, famous marine artist. He did many illustrations for periodicals during his early career. See Vol. XII, pp. 54, 55, 83, 84, 85. Also see Vols. III, V, IX, X, and XI.
551. See 405.
562. The artist, born in 1868, studied under Constant, Laurens and Gerome.
595, 596. For Catlin see Vol. II, p. 198; also see Vols. I, III, IV, and VIII.
628. See 400.
636. See 68.
649. The founders of the St. Andrews Golf Club who met under their unique "club house" were known locally as "the apple tree gang."
650. This sketch was made in the offices of McKim, Mead & White, architects for the building.
667. From a photograph taken when Jones was fourteen years of age.
689. The lithograph is from the cover of a song, *On the Beach at Cape May*, published in 1868.
722. See 405.
727. The steam of Old Faithful geyser is ascending in the background.
732. The photograph was taken from Pima Point at sunset.
734. The General Sherman tree is two hundred and eighty feet high, thirty-six and one half feet in diameter, and over six thousand years old. It takes twenty men holding hands at arms' length to encircle it.
739. Gigantic trout weighing nearly twenty pounds are found in the blue waters of Crater Lake.

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Volume VIII

Volume IX

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Volume X

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The American Church History Series (13 v., N. Y., 1893–97); the standard work. Includes a separate history of each of the leading denominations, together with general volumes on *The Religious Forces of the United States* (Vol. I) and *A History of American Christianity* (Vol. XIII). E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston, 1919); H. K. Rowe, *The History of Religion in the United States* (N. Y., 1924); C. F. Thwing, *A History of Higher Education in America* (N. Y., 1906).

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A. V. G. Allen, *Jonathan Edwards* (Boston, 1889); *The Life and Letters of Phillips Brooks* (2 v., N. Y., 1900); W. E. Barton, *The Soul of Abraham Lincoln* (N. Y., 1920); L. Beecher, *Autobiography, Correspondence, etc. of Lyman Beecher, D.D.*, Edited by C. Beecher (N. Y., 1864–65); E. J. Carpenter, *Roger Williams* (N. Y., 1909); P. Cart-

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Volume XI

THE AMERICAN SPIRIT IN LETTERS

Collections

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Volume XII

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TOPICAL GUIDE

THE purpose of these indexical references is to assist the reader in locating more quickly the volume or volumes containing the material for which he is searching. This guide is not intended to serve as an exhaustive general index. A much more thorough analysis of the contents of *The Pageant of America* will be found in the indices with which the individual volumes are supplied.

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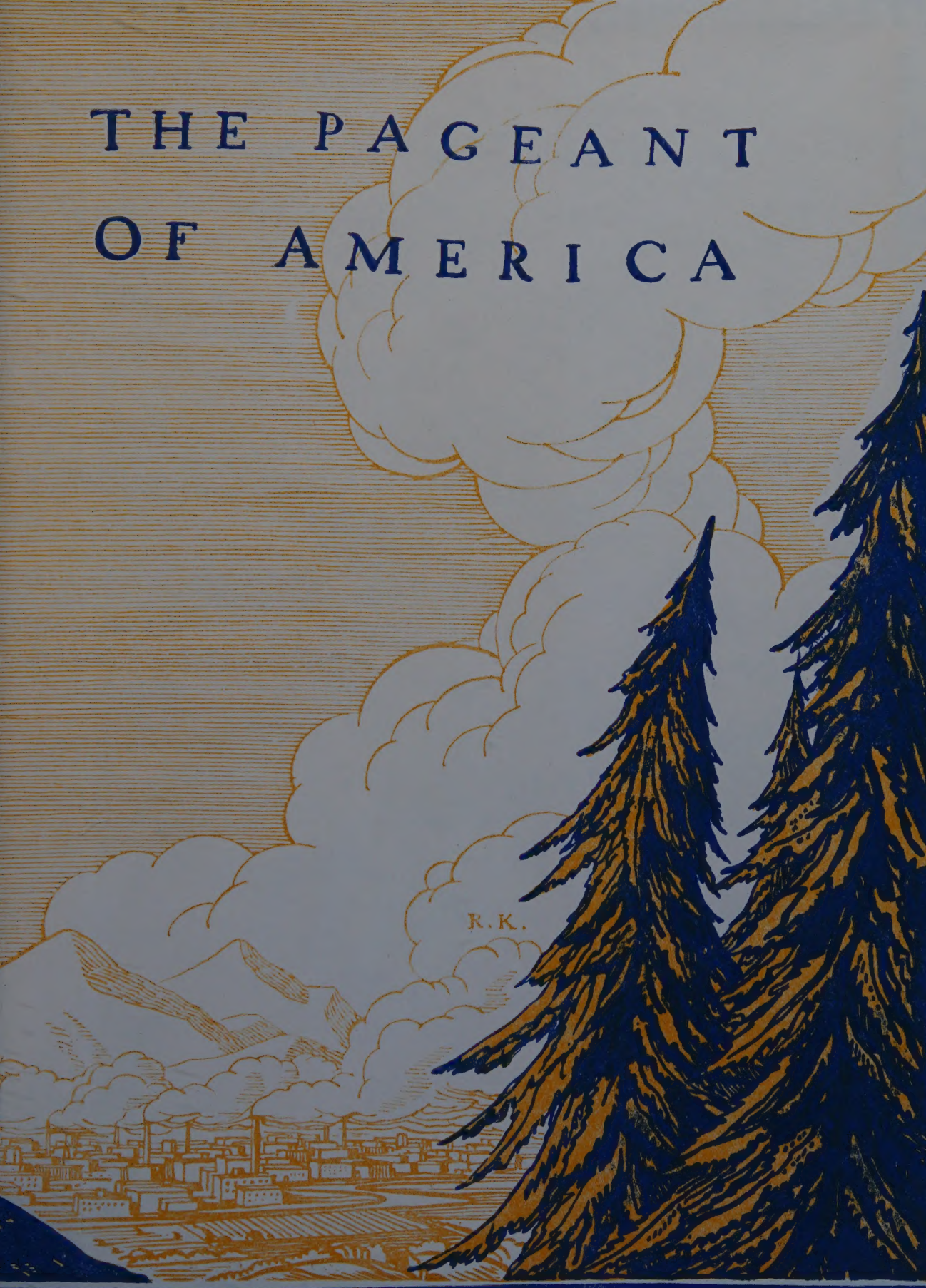

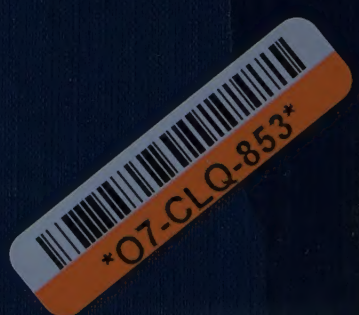
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